Political Stati Of

Europe

POLITICAL STATE OF EUROPE.

TABLE I. EUROPE.

[illegible] TITLES REFERRED TO.

ACHENWALL's Staatsbunde, &c. Account of the European States, by M. Achenwall. Gottingen, 1749. 8vo (German.)

2. *Einl. [illegible] zu die Europ. Staatskunde*, &c. Introduction to the Knowledge of the States of Europe, by M. Totze, 3d edit. 1785, 2 vols. (German) in English.

3. *Lehrbuch der Staatskunde*, &c. Manual of the present State of the European Powers, by M. Remer. Brunswic, 1786, 8vo. (German.)

4. *Eu-*

4. *Vorbereitung zur Kentniſs der Europ. Staatſverfaſſung*, &c. Introduction to the Knowledge of the Conſtitution and preſent State of the Countries of Europe, by M. Buſching, 1784. (German.)
5. Buſching's Geography tranſlated, Lond. 1756, 5 vols.
6. Dictionaire Encyclopedique, par ordre de Matieres Oeconomic politique. tom. i. ii. iii. Paris 1784.
7. *Grundſætze der Polici, Handlung und Finanz Wiſſenſchaften.* Elements of Polity, Commerce, and the Science of Finances, by Sonnenfels, Wien, 1777.
8. Introduction generale à l'Etude de la politique des Finances & du Commerce, par M. Beaudeau.
9. Anderſon's Hiſtory of Commerce. (A new edition is now publiſhing.)
10. Introduction to Geography, by M. Gatterer. Gottingen, 1775. (German.)
11. Raynal, Hiſtoire des Eſtabliſſemens des Europeens dans les deux Indes, 4to. 1781.
12. Inſtitutions Politiques, par le Baron de Felfeld, 4to.
13. Science du Government, par M. de St. Lal.

14. *Europens*

14. *Europens Producte*, &c. The natural Productions of the ſeveral Countries of Europe, by M. Crome, 1781. (German.)
15. *Vber die Groeſſe Europens*, &c. On the Size and Population of Europe, by the ſame author, 1785, 8vo. (German.)
16. *Statiſtiſche Ueberſicht*, &c. Political Survey of the principal States of Europe. 1786. (German.)
17. Les Interets des Nations relativement au Commerce. Leiden, 1765, 4to.
18. Sur la Richeſſe des etats, la Balance du Commerce & celle du pouvoir, par M. le Comte de Hertzberg, tranſlated into Engliſh. Lond. 1786, 8vo.
19. *Beſchreibung der Handlung*, &c. An Account of the Commerce of the European States, by M. Struenſee, 1778. (German.)
20. *Handbuch fur Kaufleute*, &c. Manual for Merchants. Gotha 1. (Germa.
21. *Statiſtiſche Tabellen*, &c. Tables on the preſent political State of Europe, by M. de S——g. Fol. 1785. (Germ.)
22. Mentelle, Geographie comparée, Geographie moderne, 1783, 8vo.

23. Beckman's Technologie. Goettingen, 1777.

Periodical Publications.

23. *Magazin fur Geschichte und Geographie*, &c. Historical and Geographical Magazine, by M. Busching. (German.)
24. *Wochentliche Nachrichten*, &c. Weekly Accounts of geographical, historical, and political Books, since the year 1780. (German.)
25. *Historischer Briefwechsel*, &c. Historical and Political Correspondence, by M. Schlvezer, since the year 1775. (Germ.)
26. *Politisches Journal*, &c. The Political Journal, Hamburg, since the year 1781.
27. *The Historical Portefeuille*, begun in 1782. (German.)
28. *Magazin fur die Geschichte*, &c. The Historical and Political Magazine, collected by M. Heinze, begun in 1784. (German.)
29. *Ephemeriden der Menschheit*, &c. Chronicle of Events interesting to humanity, by M. Iselin. (German.)
30. *Militair Bibliothec.* Military Library.
31. *Gottingen* Magazine and German Museum.

TABLE I.

All Europe in Engliſh geographical ſquare miles (60 miles to a degree) according to different authors.

1. According to Buſching	——		2,432,000
2. Kitchin's (Map of Europe)	——		2,180,466
3. Templeman (Survey of the Globe)	—		2,749,314
4. Bergman (Natural Geography)	—		2,906,112
5. Crome (Ueber die groeſe Europens)	—		2,785,440
6. Statiſt. Ueberſicht	—	—	2,712,112
			15,765,444
		Medium	2,627,574
7. Guthrie *	—	—	4,450,065

* The above ſtatement ſhews the inaccuracy of Mr Guthrie in this reſpect, though, on the whole, as a compendious Syſtem of Geography, his grammar is conſidered as a uſeful and valuable work.

NATURAL PRODUCTIONS OF EUROPE.

THE greateſt part of Europe being ſituated above the 45th degree of northern latitude, and even its moſt ſouthern provinces being far diſtant from the torrid zone, the ſpecies of organized bodies are much leſs numerous in Europe than in the other parts of the globe. Thus, for inſtance, upon an equal number of ſquare miles, the number of ſpecies of quadrupeds in Europe is to the number of them in Aſia as 1 to 2½, to that in America as 1 to 2 ½, and to that in Africa as 1 to 10, as I have proved in another work *; where it is ſhewn, likewiſe, that the number of the vegetable ſpecies in the other three diviſions of the globe, is greatly ſuperior to that in Europe. But nature has enriched our continent with every ſpecies of minerals, diamonds, and platina, perhaps, excepted. Gold, the firſt of metals, is not found in Europe as plentifully as in the other conti-

* Geographical Zoology applied to the hiſtory of the Earth, (in German) 1783. 8vo.

nents.

nents. However, as the European nations excel the reſt of mankind not only in the ſkill of making the beſt uſe of their natural productions, but alſo in the art of tranſplanting into their own ſoil as many of the foreign productions as their nature will permit, Europe, upon the whole, muſt be allowed to be one of the richeſt parts of the globe. It is the intention of the following tables, to point out, and to eſtimate, in a clear and conciſe manner, the productions of the ſeveral European ſtates.

GOVERNMENT.

THERE is no form of government which is not actually eſtabliſhed in ſome part of Europe. There are democratical, ariſtocratical, which might be more properly called oligarchical, monarchical, and deſpotic governments. As to the latter, it exiſts, in the true ſenſe of the word, only in Turkey. The Ruſſian government cannot, with propriety, be called deſpotic, as many provinces of Ruſſia enjoy particular privileges,

privileges, and as the preſent ſovereign has promulgated a code of laws, which muſt naturally limit the abſolute power of the monarch. Moſt of the European ſtates have fundamental laws, which actually limit, or are, at leaſt, calculated to limit the power of their reſpective ſovereigns. Formerly, moſt nations had parliaments, by which the monarchs, or, in general, the executive power, was kept in bounds. At preſent, it is well known that there exiſts in no country but England, a parliament of any real power and efficacy; and to this aſſembly the Diets of Germany and Poland bear ſome analogy.

The power of the ſovereign, in the different European ſtates, decreaſes nearly in the following gradation: Turkey, the Eccleſiaſtical State, Ruſſia, Denmark, Spain, Sardinia, Portugal, Naples, France, Pruſſia, Hungary, Sweden, England, Poland, Holland. The form of government eſtabliſhed in each ſtate of Europe will be pointed out in the ſubſequent ſpecial tables.

PUBLIC

PUBLIC REVENUE.

	£. Sterl.	
1. Great Britain -	14,500,000	
2. Auſtria - - -	12,400,000	(112 million flor.)
3. France - - -	18,000,000	(Necker Compte Rendu)
4. Spain - - -	5,000,000	of Old Spain alone
5. Ruſſia - - -	5,800,000	
6. Turkey - - -	5,000,000	
7. Pruſſia - - -	3,600,000	
8. Portugal - - -	1,800,000	
9. Sicily - - - -	1,400,000	medium
10. Holland - - -	4,000,000	
11. Sweden - - -	1,300,000	
12. Venice - - -	1,000,000	
13. Denmark - -	1,000,000	
14. Electorate of Saxony	1,100,000	
15. Electorate of Hanover	900,000	
16. Joint Elect. of the Palat. & Bavaria	1,100,000	
17. Sardinia - - -	1,000,000	

A more exact account will be found in the ſpecial tables, the preceding ſtatement in round numbers being intended merely to give the reader a general idea of the relative ſtate of European finances. It would, however, be very improper to judge of the power of ſtates merely by their finances, becauſe, in ſome countries, the value of money is much higher

higher than in others: thus, for inſtance, the whole Ruſſian army coſts the ſtate leſs than 2 million of rubles. Ruſſia, Denmark, England, Sweden, and others, have paper money.

LAND FORCES of the EUROPEAN STATES in the Year 1783.

France	300,000	
Auſtria	282,000	
Ruſſia (450,000 in all) in Europe	290,000	
Pruſſia	224,000	
Turkey (210,000 in all) but in Europe only	170,000	
Spain	60,000	includ. militia
Denmark	72,000	
Great Britain	58,000	includ. militia
Sweden	50,000	
Sardinia	40,000	
Holland	37,000	
Naples and Sicily	30,000	
Electorate of Saxony	26,000	
Portugal	20,000	
Electorate of Bavaria and the Palatinate	24,000	
Heſſe Caſſel	15,000	
Hanover	20,000	

Poland

Poland - - - - - - - - -	15,000
Venice - - - - - - - - -	8,000
Wurtemberg - - - - - - -	6,000
The Eccleſiaſtical Eſtate - -	5,000
Tuſcany - - - - - - - - -	3,000

As I have ſtated here the forces of the principal ſtates only, paſſing over a conſiderable part of Germany, Italy, and Switzerland, we may calculate the armies of all the countries in Europe to amount to 2 millions of men; ſo that ſuppoſing 140 millions of inhabitants in Europe, no more than 1/70 of the whole population are ſoldiers. The preſent military eſtabliſhment of every kingdom, in a time of general peace, differs ſomewhat from the above ſtatement. France, Auſtria, and Pruſſia, have by far the moſt formidable armies: as to Ruſſia, the immenſe extent of its provinces can never allow an army of more than 120,000, or 130,000 men, to act againſt an enemy; and as to the Turkiſh forces, they are at preſent much inferior to any other well-diſciplined army. The different proportions, in different countries, between the population and the number of ſoldiers, is not unworthy of obſervation. There are, in Germany, nearly 500,000 ſoldiers, con-

conſequently $\frac{1}{52}$ of the whole population are engaged in the military profeſſion: in Italy, on the contrary, even ſuppoſing the ſtanding armies of that country to amount to 120,000 men, this number makes only $\frac{1}{133}$ of the whole population, which amounts to 16 millions.

NAVAL FORCES.

NUMBER OF SHIPS OF THE LINE, FRIGATES, CUTTERS, SLOOPS, &c.

1.	England	465	
2.	France	266	
3.	Spain	130	
4.	Holland	95	
5.	Sweden	85	
6.	Denmark	60	
7.	Turkey	50	commonly reckoned 60
8.	Ruſſia	63	
9.	Sardinia	32	
10.	Venice	30	
11.	Sicily	25	
12.	Portugal	24	
	Total	1325	

Several

Several of theſe numbers, taken from the naval liſts in the year 1783, are at preſent reduced; the actual number will be mentioned in the ſpecial tables. This gives, however, ſome idea of the reſpective naval ſtrength of the different powers of Europe. Some of them, as for inſtance, Denmark, Sweden, Sicily, Portugal, having had no war for many years paſt, and having, for that reaſon, built but a ſmall number of ſhips, are capable of maintaining a much larger navy than they now have; and they would, undoubtedly, increaſe their naval forces very conſiderably in caſe of a war.

RELIGION.

THE religions of Europe are the Chriſtian, the Jewiſh, and the Mahomedan. The two firſt are ſpread all over Europe; the firſt and laſt are the only eſtabliſhed ones, the Jewiſh being merely tolerated. The chief diviſions of the Chriſtian are the Greek, the Roman Catholic, and the Proteſtant. The Greek religion is eſtabliſhed only in Ruſſia, and tolerated

tolerated in ſome parts of the Auſtrian dominions, in Poland, and chiefly in Turkey. ſubdiviſions of the Greek church are the Armenian and Neſtorian church. Of the Roman Catholic church, Janſeniſm is a ſubdiviſion. The Proteſtant religion is ſubdivided into the Lutheran and Calviniſt, or reformed religion: of the former, the epiſcopal church of England and Ireland is a branch; of the latter, the Preſbyterian church of Scotland. There are, beſides, many ſects adapted to the different degrees of theological knowledge, or to the different warmth of imagination of thoſe that embrace them: the principal of theſe ſects are Arminians, Memnonites, Socinians, Quakers, Moravian Brethren, and Methodiſts. It may, perhaps, be an object of curioſity to compare the proportions of ground now occupied, and formerly diſputed by the Roman Catholic and Proteſtant religions, with the numbers of their adherents. The proportion of the ſurface of the countries, in which the Proteſtant religion is eſtabliſhed, to thoſe in which the Roman Catholic religion prevails, is nearly as 3 to 4. the number of Roman Catholics is according

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ing to my calculations, drawn up with as much accuracy as ſuch an intricate matter will allow of, about 90,000,000; the number of Proteſtants only 24,000,000. which is a proportion of nearly 4 to 1. I ſhall obſerve, in addition to this account of the European religions, that an inconſiderable number of the ignorant Laplanders may, with propriety, be called Pagans.

GENERAL REMARKS.

THE greateſt part of Europe is under the influence of a climate, which, being tempered with a moderate degree of cold, forms a race of men, ſtrong, bold, active, and ingenious; forced by neceſſity to make the beſt uſe they can of the ſmaller ſhare of vegetable and animal treaſures, which their ſoil produces. In hotter and richer parts of the globe, the profuſion of ſpontaneous natural productions, and the heat of the atmoſphere, relax the bodily and mental powers of the inhabitants, check their ſpirit of enterprize, and confine the compaſs of their thought. The torrid zone

has never been able, nor is ever likely, to boaſt of a Newton, a Cæſar, or a Frederic.

Great ridges of mountains, the chief of which are the Alps, the Apennines, the Pyrenean, the Carpathian, Sudetic, and Saxon mountains, effect not only a great variety in the climate, but pour out many large and navigable rivers, and contain every ſpecies of minerals. It is likewiſe no ſmall convenience and encouragement to commerce, that Europe is interſected by ſeveral ſeas, and that it is contiguous to the Atlantic Ocean.

The ſeeming natural diſadvantages of Europe have, by dint of the ingenuity and perſeverance of the inhabitants, given riſe to numberleſs arts and ſciences, which have been carried to ſuch a degree of perfection, as inſures to Europe a decided ſuperiority over the reſt of the globe. Aſia, Africa, and America, have immenſe deſerts, ſuch as are no where to be found in Europe; deſerts of many thouſand ſquare miles, and which are partly owing to natural and inſuperable diſadvantages of ſituation, partly to want of induſtry, which is at once both cauſe and effect of deſolation. It is almoſt needleſs to mention how far the ſciences of Europe ex-

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cel thoſe of the other three continents, excepting thoſe parts into which European knowledge and civilization has been tranſplanted. Europe may alſo boaſt of the greateſt number of uſeful inventions and inſtitutions, to preſerve and to propagate acquired knowledge. It has, at preſent, about 130 univerſities, and an almoſt infinite number of literary ſocieties, or academies of ſciences, arts and languages. In conſequence of the great progreſs of knowledge, we enjoy all the conveniencies of life in a much higher degree than the inhabitants of regions, on which nature has beſtowed greater riches. And ſuch is our ſuperiority of ſkill in aſtronomy and navigation, that having conquered, in a great meaſure, the dangers of the ocean, the commerce of the Europeans ſeems to be bounded only by the limits of the globe itſelf.

The Chineſe, a nation not leſs vain than numerous, ſcarce ever extended their commerce beyond the Eaſt Indies, and the enterpriſing Malayes never ventured as far as to the Cape of Good Hope, or to America and Europe. The celebrated Chineſe canals, compared to thoſe in France and England, are no leſs inferior to them than their navy is to that of

either of theſe great naval powers. And yet it muſt be owned, that Europe loſes a conſiderable balance of ready money to China, as two thirds of the value of Chineſe commodities are ſuppoſed to be paid for in ready money and bullion. This ſum of money muſt be very great indeed, as the annual conſumption of tea in Europe is reckoned to amount to 18 millions of pounds. From the year 1772 to 1782, there have been every year freighted at Canton, no leſs than 209 European veſſels, (92 of which belonged to the Engliſh Eaſt India Company) which carried to Europe upwards of 189,000,000 lb. of tea. As the greateſt part of the immenſe ſum paid for this extraordinary article of commerce is loſt to Europe, it is really aſtoniſhing that no trading nation has ever yet hit on an effectual method to cultivate tea in Europe. Having already in our hands the important articles of rhubarb and porcelaine, if we could add likewiſe the immenſe article of tea to our riches, we might put a ſtop to thoſe exorbitant annual drains and loſſes; and the Chineſe would no longer be able to boaſt of being the only nation that

has

has the balance of trade in their favour againſt all Europe*.

The ſtates of Europe, conſidered with reſpect to their intrinſic power and influence abroad, may be divided into three claſſes: France, Great Britain, Auſtria, Pruſſia, and Ruſſia, belong to the firſt. Secondary powers are thoſe of Turkey, Spain, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, and Sardinia: the third claſs comprehends Portugal, Naples and Sicily, Poland, the Joint Electorate of the Palatinate and Bavaria, the Electorate of Saxony, Switzerland and Venice. For the

* The following ſtatement will give an idea of the annual loſſes of Europe to this country. In 1766, the European nations, who trade to China, exported Chineſe commodities (of which the article of tea makes four-fifths) to the amount of 26,754,494 livres Tourn. paid in ready money, and a ſmall part of it in commodities, the produce of the reſpective countries. Sweden paid to China, 1,935,168l. in ſilver, in lead, iron, and other commodities, 427,500l. Denmark bought for 2,161,630l. in ready money, and for 231,000l. in goods. France bought for 4,000,000l. in ready money, and 400,000l. in woollens. Holland for 2,735,400l. in money, and 44,600l. in woollens. England paid to China 5,443,566l. in ready money, upwards of 2,000,000l. in woollens, and 3,570,000l. in Eaſt and Weſt India goods.

DICT. ENCYCLOP.

laſt three centuries paſt, the cabinets of Europe, and chiefly that of France, have endeavoured to keep up a conſtant equilibrium between the different ſtates. France and England endeavoured to preſerve the balance of power in the weſt, Pruſſia, Auſtria, and Ruſſia, that in the eaſt, of Europe: Ruſſia has, by its late extraordinary increaſe of power, gained a great aſcendency in the north, after a ſucceſsful ſtruggle with the rival power of Sweden.

TABLE

TABLE II.

RUSSIA.

AUTHORITIES.

1. *NEU-veraendertes Ruſsland*, &c. The preſent State of Ruſſia, and Additions to this Work, by Mr. Schlvezer, Riga, 1767 and 1769, 8vo. (German.)
2. *Briſe ueber Ruſsland*, &c. Letters on Ruſſia, by Mr. Schmidt, Phiſeldeok, 17 Vols (German.)
3. *Verſuch einer Einleitung*, &c. An Introduction to the Hiſtory of Ruſſia, by the ſame Author (German.)
4. Hiſtoire de la Ruſſie, par M. le Clerc, á Paris, 1783.
5. Guldenſtedt Diſcours Academique, ſur les Produits de la Ruſſie, 1776.
6. Ebauche pour donner une idée de la Forme du Gouvernement, de l'Empire de la Ruſſie (par M. le Comte de Munich) Copenh. 1774.

 7. Travels

7. Travels through Russia, by Pallas, Gmelin, Georgi, Lepechin, Bell, Hanway and Coxe; the three first originally written in German, the fourth in the Russian Language.
8. *Verzeichniss der Stadthalterschaften*, &c. Enumeration of the Governments of the Russian Empire, by Mr. Ebeling, 1784 (German.)
9. *Sammlung Russischer Geschichte*, &c. Collections of Papers relative to the History and present State of Russia, by Mr. Muller, 9 Vols. 8vo. (German.)
10. The Petersburg Journal (German.)
11. *Russische Bibliothek*, i. e. the Russian Library, by Mr. Backmeister (German.)

A complete History of the Russian Commerce, written in the Russian language, is now publishing by Mr. Tchulkow; of which some Volumes have already appeared.

TABLE

TABLE II. RUSSIA.

Extent and Diviſions, 44° 40′ 72 lat. 23° 62 eaſt long. in Europe.

Ruſſia is, at preſent, divided into 42 Governments, which are comprehended again under 19 general Governments, viz.

A. European Part of RUSSIA.

30 GOVERNMENTS.

	TOWNS.	
1. Govern. of St. Peterſburg, divided into 7 Parts or Circles	Peterſburg,	170,000 inhab.
		191,000 (1784)
		126,700 (Coxe)
	Narva	3,580
	Kronſtadt	5,000
2. Govern. of Wiburg, divided into 6 Circles	Wiburg	
	Fridrickſham	
3. Govern. of Riga, properly of Livonia	Riga	27,938
	Dorpt	
	Pernau	
4. Govern. of Reval, properly of Eſtland	Reval	10,000
5. Govern. of Moſkow, divided into	Moſkow	277,000 (Coxe)
	12,550 houſes and inhabitants	153,000
	Kolomna	
6. Govern. of Wolodimer, 14	Wolodimer	
7. ——— Pereſlaw	Pereſlau-Saleſkoi	

8. Govern.

			TOWNS.	
8. Govern. of Kaluga, divided into 12 Circles		Kaluga		
9. —— of Tula	12	Tula	-	30,000 inhab.
10. —— of Jaraſlaw	12	Jaraſlaw		
11. —— of Koſtroma, Diviſions	15	Koſtroma		
12. —— of Nowogorod, Circle	15	Nowogorod		6,000
13 —— of Twer	13	Twer		10,000
14. —— of Wologda	19	Wologda		8,000
		Archangel		
15. —— of Niſhnei Nowogiod —	13	Niſhnei Nowogrod		
16. —— of Wororeſh	15	Woroneſh		
17. —— of Tanbow	14	Tanbow		
18. —— of Kurſk	15	Kurſk		
19. —— of Orel	13	Orel		
20 —— of Charcow	15	Charcow		
21. —— of Kiew (Coſac Country, or the Ukraine) about 1 million of people —	11	Kiew		
22. —— of Tſhernigo	11	Tſhernigo		
23. —— of Nowogrod Sewerſk —	11	Nowogrod Sewerſk		
24. —— of Smolenſk (White Ruſſia)	13	Smolenſk		4,000
25. —— of Pleſkow	10	Pleſkow		
26. —— of Polotzka	11	Polotzka		
27. —— of Mohilow	12	Mohilow		
28. —— of Ekatarinoſlow (New Ruſſia)	20	Pultawa		
		Charſon		
		Aſow		
29. —— of Tauria (or Crimea)	7	Caffa	-	4,000
		Perekov		
30. —— Wiatka	10	Wiatka		

B. Asiatic Russia.

12 Governments.

		TOWNS.	
1.	Govern. of Caucasia (Kuban)	Taman	
2.	—— of Casan, divided into 13 Circles	Casan, 2,5000	
3.	—— of Permia (Catarinb.) 16 Circles	Perm Ekatarinenberg	
4.	—— of Pensa	7	Pensa
5.	—— of Sinbirsk	12	Sinbirsk Samara
6.	—— of Saratow	9	Saratow
7.	—— of Astrachan		Astrachan 70,000
8.	—— of Orenburg		Orenburg Gurjew
9.	—— Ufa		Ufa
10.	—— of Tobolsk, 3 Divisions		Tobolsk 2000 houses Jenisceisk
11.	—— of Irkutzk, 17 Circles		Irkutzk 1,113 Jakutzk 600 Kiechta Oihotz
12.	—— of Kolywan	5	Kolywan Tomsk 2,000

C. Tributary Islands in the Great South Sea, between Asia and America.

1. The Aleutian Islands.
2. The Andrean Islands.
3. The Fox Islands.
4. The Kurilian Islands.

TABLE.

Whole RUSSIA	square Miles.	Population.	Population for every square Mile.
A and B -	4 880 000	24,000,000	5
A - - - -	1,114 370	20,000 000	20
B - - - - -	3 6,5,024	4 000,000 for the ancient limits	1
Livonia - -	16,000	425,300	32
Astrania -	6 4 0	200,000	31
Crimea - -	24,365	200,000, accord to some account only 60,000	8 or only 2
By the Division of Poland, Russia acquired	31,000	1,800,000	57

According to the former division into governments, which is preserved in most of the maps, the European part of Russia contains only 1,008,000 square miles.

The superiority of the European part over the vast but uncultivated provinces of Asia, is striking.

The provinces acquired by the division of Poland, are highly valuable to Russia, to which the acquisition of Crimea is by no means comparable in value.

This immense empire comprehends upwards of fifty different nations. They may be reduced to the following classes: 1. Slavonian nations, viz. Russians, Polanders, Cosaks. 2. Lettonian (in Livonia). 3. Fin-

3. Finnian, viz. Laplanders, Tſhorkis, Eſtonians, Licſſs, Wotjaks, Tchermiſſes, Tſhowaſhes, Permekian, Wogolian, Morduines, Samojedes, Oſtiaks, Yuraks. 4. Tartarian, viz. Nogaitz, Tſhulyms, Baſhkirians, Kirgis, Yakutes, Bazabins, &c. Tartars. 5. Mongolian, viz. Kalmucs, Buræts, Telcuts, &c. 6. Tunguſian, Koriakes, Kamtſkadaly, Kurilian, &c. 7. Migrated Europeans from every part of Europe, chiefly Germans. 8. Armenians, Indians, Perſians. It is ſuppoſed, that the number of languages cannot well be leſs than the number of different nations.

WEALTH AND COMMERCE OF RUSSIA.

IN ſo vaſt a tract of country as the empire of Ruſſia, ſpreading under many degrees of latitude, watered by more than eight rivers, which run through the ſpace of 2000 miles, and croſſed by an extenſive chain of mountains, we may expect to find an infinite number of natural productions, though we muſt make ſome allowances for the great deſerts

deſerts of Siberia, and the many other parts of this immenſe empire not yet thoroughly inveſtigated by natural hiſtorians. The ſpecies of plants peculiar to this part of the globe, which have been already diſcovered, amount to many thouſands. The ſoil contains almoſt all minerals, tin, platina, and ſome ſemimetals excepted, which have not yet been found. Yet in the mines of all theſe large provinces not half the number of miners is employed, nor even half as many mines have been explored as in Germany and even in England. Animals of every ſpecies are here likewiſe in ſuch abundance, that a great quantity of them remain undeſcribed. As to the uſeful productions of the animal kingdom, Ruſſia can boaſt of the greateſt variety of the fineſt furs, as it has plenty of ſables, martins, ermine, black, white, blue, and red foxes, white and common lynxes, bears, wolves, and ſeveral animals of the ſpotted cat kind. It abounds likewiſe in camels, horſes, aſſes, and cattle both wild and tame; it has innumerable flocks of more than one ſpecies of hares and ſquirrels, wild and tame ſheep, wild goats, different ſorts of deer, rein-deer, elks, the muſk-animal, the muſk-

beaver,

beaver, different antelopes, &c. The following data may give the reader a general idea of their value to the country. In 1781, there were exported, from the harbour of Peterſburg alone, 428,877 ſkins of hares, 36,904 ſkins of grey ſquirrels, 1354 of bears, 2018 of ermine, 5639 of foxes, 300 of wild cats, beſides thoſe of wolves and of the *ſuſlic* (a beautiful animal of the rat kind); exclu-ſive of the exportation of the ſame articles from Archangel, Riga, and the Caſpian Sea. In one year there were exported from Archangel 783,000 pud of tallow (a pud is equal to 40 lb.), 8602 pud of candles, and 102 pud of butter. In 1781, from Peterſburg 148,099 pud of red leather, 10,885 pud of leather for ſoles, 530,646 pud of candles, 50,000 pud of ſoap, 27,416 pud of ox-bones, 990 calve-ſkins. The ſheep of ſome Ruſſian provinces are very profitable to their owners; the moſt eſteemed on account of their wool and ſkins, are the ſheep of the Calmucks and Kirgis Tartars. Theſe nations ſell the ſkins of the young, and even of the unborn lambs, which are the ſofteſt in the world, and feel like ſattin. The Kirgis and Baſhkires carry on a great trade in horſes and camels,

camels. the former of which are much valued, there are individuals among them who poſſeſs ſometimes 2000 horſes. The cattle of the Ukraine are reckoned the beſt in Europe. In the year 1768, wax was exported to the value of 72,000 rubles; yet the vaſt quantity of honey, produced by the wild bees of Aſtrachan, Caſan, and Orenburg, is not ſufficient for the inland conſumption of this article, which in Ruſſia is very generally uſed inſtead of ſugar. Birds are very plentiful in Ruſſia; but the advantages to be derived from them do not ſeem to have been ſufficiently attended to, as Ruſſia continues to import feathers, gooſe-quills, and down. The fiſheries of the Baltic and Caſpian Sea, of the lakes Onega and Ladoga, are of great importance. The different ſorts of ſturgeon caught in great plenty in theſe waters, viz. the common ſturgeon, the beluga, the ſterlid, &c. ſerve not only for food, but ſupply alſo the iſh-gum, of which there were exported 3000 pud from Peterſburg in the year 1781. From the ſpawn of theſe fiſhes caviar is made, one ſingle beluga contains ſometimes 120 lb. of ſpawn The caviar is prepared in different manners, and is moſtly

exported

exported. The ſeals, walroſſes, and cod caught in the Ruſſian ſeas, are likewiſe very important articles.

Of the productions of the vegetable kingdom, the moſt valuable to Ruſſia are its immenſe foreſts of fir-trees. Oaks and beeches do not commonly grow to a uſeful ſize beyond the 60th degree of north latitude. In 1768, the value of timber exported amounted to 585,000 rubles, of pitch and tar to 82,000 rubles, pot-aſh to 37,000 rubles, maſts to 59,000 rubles. In 1760, an Engliſh merchant contracted with the Ruſſian government for leave to export annually, for the ſpace of 30 years, 250,000 large pieces of timber, 10,000 maſts, 10,000 ſmaller pieces of timber, 200,000 planks, 5000 fathom of birch-wood, and 200,000 ſmall beams. This branch of trade is carried on chiefly by the towns of Peterſburg, Wiburg, Narva, Archangel, and Kola. The plant kali, Salſola Linnæi, from which alkali is extracted, grows near Aſtrachan and Aſſow.

The European part of the Ruſſian dominions, and chiefly the province of Livonia, is diſtinguiſhed for the quantity of corn of all ſorts it produces: the value of the rye

and wheat exported annually amounts to upwards of 734,000 rubles. Tobacco is cultivated in ſeveral parts of Ruſſia. Hemp, flax, and ſail-cloth, Ruſſia exports to the amount of 600,000 rubles. In 1768, Ruſſia received for hemp-ſeed exported 93,000 rubles; for hemp-oil, commonly called linſeed-oil, 255,000 rubles; for flax-ſeed 433,000 rubles. Archangel ſent abroad in 1777, 62,043 cwt. of flax-ſeed, 71,783 pud of hemp, 105,928 arſchien (yards) of linen, and 3210 ropes.

The mineral ſtores of this empire would be much more valuable, if there was a greater population and more liberty: yet the gold mines near Catharineburg produce annually no leſs than 240 lb. of gold-duſt. Among the richeſt mines are thoſe of Kolivan, which yielded ſome years ago from 200 to 400 pud of ſilver, but of late from 400 to 800 pud, or about 30,000 pounds of ſilver; every 100 lb. of ſilver containing 3 lb. of gold. The ſilver mines at the Schlangenberg, and the copper, lead, and iron mines, (eſpecially thoſe of the Altai, and of the ſeveral branches of the Ural,) produce great riches. The mines in the neighbourhood of Nertſchinſk,

near

near the borders of China, yield annually 16,000 pounds of ſilver and ſome quick-ſilver. In 1781, there have been exported from Peterſburg 3,589,869 ſhippound of iron, and 280,000 ſhippound of copper; lead to the value of 96,000 rubles, and ſugar of lead (ſaccharum Saturni) to the value of 6000 rubles. There are ſeveral manufactures of ſulphur in the empire; one of them, eſtabliſhed at Sernoi Gorodoc, near the river Wolga, produces 1500 pud. Salt abounds in Ruſſia, but as there is not a ſufficient number of ſalt-works, a conſiderable quantity of ſalt is ſtill imported. Iſinglaſs (mica membranacea, Cronſtadt) is a famous mineral production of Ruſſia; it is found in Siberia, eſpecially in the neighbourhood of Irkutzk in the Ural mountains, and in the iſland of Solowezkoi, in the government of Aſtrihen; the largeſt and moſt valuable plates are found in the province of Wologda, 3037 pud of it were exported from Peterſburg in 1779. There are beſides many ſorts of jaſper, marble, and granit; the latter being found in very large maſſes, is of great uſe in ornamental architecture.

The whole of the exports of Ruſſia amounted in 1783 to near 13 million of rubles; the imports did not much exceed the ſum of 12 millions. So much has commerce been encouraged of late, that in the courſe of five years the value of the exports increaſed at the rate of nearly a million each year. The imports conſiſt chiefly of wine, ſpices, fruits, fine cloth, and other manufactured commodities and articles of luxury. The Engliſh, and next to them the Dutch, have the moſt conſiderable ſhare in the Ruſſian trade. The value of the exports from Ruſſia into Great-Britain amounted in 1785 to 1,606,688l. the value of the imports from Great-Britain, &c. to 233,998l. ſterling. (Cuſtom-houſe Account, preſented to the Houſe of Commons 1787.)

The commerce of the Black Sea has conſiderably increaſed ſince the late war with the Turks. The value of the imports in the ſeveral harbours on the Black Sea, amounted in 1785 to 806,330 piaſters, the piaſter computed at 40 paras each, nearly equal to 241,849l. ſterling. The exports from the ſame harbours amount to 735,117 rubles.

It is apparently owing to the want of hands that there are at preſent no more than 484 manufactures in the whole empire. Some of them, however, are brought to a degree of perfection, which proves the ſkill and ingenuity of the nation: as the manufacture of muſquets and other arms at Tula, which employs 6000 people, and ſupplies the Ruſſian dominions.

There are ſome uſeful canals, viz. that of Ladoga, Twer, and others.

GOVERNMENT.

THE emperor, or autocrator of Ruſſia, (the preſent empreſs ſtyles herſelf autocratrix) is abſolute. He muſt be of the Greek church by the ancient cuſtom of the empire. The only written fundamental law exiſting is that of Peter the Firſt, by which the right of ſucceſſion to the throne depends entirely on the choice of the reigning monarch. Some writers, however, conſider the indiviſibility of the empire as a ſecond fundamental law of the monarchy. The nobi-

lity and gentry have no rights and privileges to protect them againſt the arbitrary will of the ſovereign, who has unlimited power over their lives and property, as well as over all the reſt of his Ruſſian ſubjects. Yet ſome of the conquered provinces, as Livonia and Eſthonia, enjoy by the peace of Nyſtadt ſome valuable privileges. The Coſſacks and ſome other Aſiatic nations are likewiſe in a ſtate of leſs ſervile ſubjection.

The management of public affairs is entruſted to ſeveral departments. At the head of all thoſe concerned in the regulation of internal affairs (the ſynod or eccleſiaſtical convocation excepted) is the ſenate under the preſidency of a chancellor and vice-chancellor. The ſovereign himſelf nominates the members of this ſupreme court, which is divided into ſix chambers, four of which are at Peterſburg, and two at Moſcow. The provinces are ruled by governors appointed by the ſovereign; each government, containing on an average 400,000 ſubjects, has two courts of juſtice, one of which is appropriated to civil and the other to criminal cauſes. Under the controul of the ſenate are the following departments: the war de-

partment; the board of admiralty; the ſupreme court of appeals at Moſcow, of which the court of judicature at Peterſburg is a branch: the latter has the controul of the civil magiſtrates in the cities, and of the court of Relief, eſtabliſhed for the benefit of thoſe who have not the means of ſuing for redreſs in the other courts. From all courts of juſtice there lies an appeal to the ſenate. The other departments are: the board of the treaſury; the board of commerce; the board of the mines, including the inſpection of the mint; the board of manufactures; the court of exchequer (or chamber of finances); the board of reviſion of all public accounts; the ſalt-revenue office; the poſt-office; the medical court; the department of police, and the chamber of ſeizures and forfeitures.

FINANCES.

THE public revenue in 1765 amounted to only 20 millions. The preſent revenue is a very large one, conſidering the low price of all the neceſſaries of life, which are at leaſt four times cheaper than in England: the revenue commonly exceeds the expence of the government.

This ſum is raiſed, 1. From a capitation tax, which at preſent has been extended to the provinces of Livonia, Eſthonia, and Finnland, contrary to the privileges granted them by Peter the Great. The produce of this tax in 1768 was ſeven million of rubles, but it is ſince greatly increaſed. 2. From the cuſtoms, amounting to upwards of three million of rubles, and increaſing with the extenſion of commerce. 3. From the monopoly inveſted in the crown of vending all ſorts of ſpirituous liquors, which yields likewiſe upwards of three million of rubles. 4. From the ſaltworks, which produce one million and a half. 5. From taxes on lands,

on

on ſales of gentlemen's eſtates, fiſheries, and licences of public houſes. 6. From the profits of the mint. 7. From the mines.

The public debts are computed to amount to about 40 million of rubles.

ARMY.

Generally calculated to amount to 400—450,000 men; above 468,000 (1772) according to B.

REGULAR AND IRREGULAR, 1783.

	Men.
Regular cavalry	56,000
Irregular cavalry	48,000
Regiments of infantry	160,000
Garriſons	87,000
Militia cavalry	26,000
Artillery of the camp	8500
—— of the garriſons	8500
Train	3800
	397,800

A. GUARDS.

ARMY IN 1784.

A. GUARDS.

	Men.
1. Chevalier guard	60
2. Three reg. of the Probraſhenſkoy guards	3245
And one company of bombadiers	107
3. Semenowſk and Iſmailow guards	2436
4. One regiment of horſe-guards —	1443
	7291

One ſquadron of huſſar and coſſac guards.

B. CAVALRY.

1. Five regiments of cuiraſſiers —	5625
2. Nineteen reg. of carabiniers	21,375
3. Eight reg. of dragoons ——	14,976
4. Sixteen reg. of huſſars —	16,000
5. Three battalions of cavalry —	1686
	59,662

C. INFANTRY.

1. Four regiments of grenadiers —	8280
2. Sixty-five reg. of muſketeers —	123,240
3. Twelve batt. of muſketeers (948 each)	11,376
4. Ten batt. chaſſeurs (699) —	6990
	149,886
5. Twelve regiments of coſſacs	

D. AR-

D. ARTILLERY.

	Men.
1. Five regiments, and 2. One do. engineers, pioneers, and train	29,062
3. Three reg. of piqueneers	
	245,901

Beſides the guard huſſars, twelve regiments of coſſacs, and the piqueneers.

E. GARRISONS.

1. Infantry in different unequal diviſions	87,000
2. Twenty-four regiments of cavalry	
Reckoning each of the 12 regiments of coſſacs, and of the 24 regiments of cavalry, at only 1000 men —	36,000
Total	368,901

Beſides the huſſars du corps, the piqueneers, &c.

NAVY.

NAVY.

Sixty-three armed ſhips, of which 24 are of the line, 20,000 ſailors. It has been related, that (in 1785) there were 48 ſhips of the line at Cronſtadt, and 12 ſhips of the line in the Black Sea. By other accounts the ſtrength of the Ruſſian navy is much leſs conſiderable.

The chief harbours are, 1. Cronſtadt, not far from Peterſburg, on the gulf of Finnland, where there is a fine dock-yard. 2. Reval, in the province of Livonia, on the Baltic Sea. 3. Archangel, on the White Sea 4. Cherſon, on the Black Sea, in the province of Ekatarinoſlow. The admiralty conſiſts of one high-admiral, three admirals, three vice-admirals, and four countre admirals.

The whole army was, in the year 1784, divided into nine different diviſions and three corps, the Caucaſian, that of Orenburg and of Siberia. All the war affairs are under the war department of Peterſburg, where there is alſo founded an academy for cadets and for artillery. Tula, the capital of the province

vince of the ſame name, is famous for its great manufacture of muſkets. The expences of the whole army amount only to about two millions of rubles. Milit. Biblioth.

RELIGION.

THE religion eſtabliſhed in the Ruſſian empire is the Greek. The moſt eſſential point in which their profeſſion of faith differs from that of the Latin church, is the doctrine, that the Holy Ghoſt proceeds from the Father only. The Greek church keeps Lent and other days of faſt, which are very numerous, with the utmoſt ſtrictneſs; its liturgy in Ruſſia continues to be read in the old Sclavonian language; and its form of worſhip is at leaſt as much overloaded with rites as the Roman Catholic. Saints are held in veneration; painted images of them, but no ſtatues are ſuffered in the churches. There is a ſect of diſſenters, who call themſelves Chriſtians of the old faith, but who are called apoſtates by the orthodox church;

the differences between them relate chiefly to ceremonies. The church has been governed ſince the time of Peter the Great by a national council, called the Holy Synod, compoſed of a preſident, two vice-preſidents and nine other members. The Ruſſian clergy conſiſts of three metropolitans, viz. thoſe of Kiew and Tobolſk, and the new-appointed metropolitan of Georgia; of 28 biſhops, independent of the metropolitans, and ſubject only to the authority of the Synod, who preſide over dioceſes called Eparchies, and of protopopes, popes, and deacons. Marriage is forbid to the archbiſhops and biſhops, but is allowed to the inferior clergy. There are 479 convents for men, and 74 for women, containing about 70,000 perſons; the convents of monks are governed by preſidents, called Archimandrites; thoſe of nuns by women, called Igumenias. Above 900,000 peaſants belong to the eſtates in poſſeſſion of the clergy.

Beſides the Greek religion, all other religious profeſſions are tolerated, and enjoy the free exerciſe of their worſhip. Livonia and ſome other provinces, which formerly belonged to Sweden, are of the Lutheran religion.

gion. The Roman Catholics in the Poliſh provinces, in which the order of Jeſuits is ſtill tolerated, are under the government of the Catholic archbiſhop of Mohilow. The Jews are tolerated only in or near the the Poliſh provinces. The Armenians have a biſhop of their own, reſiding at Aſtrachan. In the province of Saratow there are ſeveral flouriſhing ſettlements of Moravian brethren. Of the Aſiatic nations belonging to this vaſt empire, ſome are Mahomedans, others worſhip the Delai Lama of Tibet, or the great Kutuchtu of the Calmucks, and others, as the Kamſhadales and Kurilians have a form of pagan ſuperſtition peculiar to themſelves.

GENERAL REMARKS.

RUSSIA is indebted for its preſent flouriſhing ſtate to the efforts of two great monarchs, ſucceeding each other at no great diſtance of time. Had the intermediate ſovereigns between Peter the Great and Catharine the Second, who filled up the interval

of

of 37 years, been capable of following the ſteps of the firſt of theſe monarchs, who found, about 90 years ago, his native country uncivilized and deſolate, this riſing empire would have been much farther advanced in wealth and proſperity. The preſent condition of this country requires, that the increaſe of its population ſhould be the principal object of the attention of government. It is the obvious policy of Ruſſia to avoid wars, to encourage marriages, and to promote agriculture, manufactures, and commerce. Though its provinces are of an enormous extent, though its army is the largeſt in Europe, the Ruſſian empire is not yet become formidable to the other great European powers. Its vaſt dominions, peopled in the more remote parts bynumerous, fierce, and reſtleſs barbarians, contain as many domeſtic enemies, who, in a great meaſure, engage the attention and occupy the power of the ſtate. The neighbouring Perſian and Turkiſh dominions, eaſily provoked to hoſtilities, require large bodies of troops to guard the frontiers, which cannot be withdrawn without endangering the ſafety of the whole empire.

Sciences

Sciences and arts, introduced by Peter the Great, are highly encouraged by the preſent empreſs. There are in Ruſſia three univerſities, at Peterſburg, Moſcow, and Kiew; the latter of which is merely a ſeminary for the clergy; an academy of ſciences, an academy of arts, and an academy of the Ruſſian language. The preſent empreſs is actually employed in founding a number of ſchools, for the education of the lower claſſes of her ſubjects, throughout the beſt inhabited parts of the empire; an inſtitution of the moſt beneficial tendency, which, if rightly executed, will entitle the great Catharine, more than any of her predeceſſors, to the gratitude of the Ruſſian nation.

E TABLE

TABLE III.

SWEDEN.

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7. The

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TABLE III.

EXTENT, DIVISIONS, POSSESSIONS. 50° —— 70° latitude. 10° —— 30° east longitude.	Square Miles.
SWEDEN —	209,392 accord. to St. T. 216,000, Busch. 230,528
Divided into Sweden, properly so called, and Gothland. Both together —	64,000
A. SWEDEN contains Upland, Soedermanland, Westmanland, Nerike, Dalecarlien	
B. GOTHLAND contains, Ostgothland, Smaland, Oeland and Gottland, Westgottland, Wermeland, Dahland, Bohlein, Sudermanland, viz. Schonen, Halland, Blekingen	
C. NORDLAND — —	95,472
D. LAPPLAND, divided into 7 districts, called Marken, viz. Jœmteland, Lappmark, Asele, Umea, Pitea, Lulia, Tornea, Kemi	
E. FINNLAND — —	43,780
F. The SWEDISH Part of POMERANIA, viz. Pomerania, Island of Rugen, the District of Wismar	1,440
G. In the WEST INDIA, Sweden obtained in the Year 1785, from France, the Island of St. Barthelemi	30

TABLE III.

Population.	Population for every square mile	CHIEF TOWNS. Number of Inhabitants.
3 millions.		
2,100,000	33	Stockholm, about 80,000, (Pol. Jour.) the Government and second in rank. Nykoping. Iron, the famous mining place, 7,000 Swedish miles, S.E. of Lindkoping. Inhabitants. Jonkoping, town. Gothenburg, 12,000. (Pol. Jour.)
150,000	not yet	Lund, university. Helsingborg, near the Sound. Carlscron, Admiralty seat.
64,000	12	Visby, in Gothland, 8,750.
1,250	70	Stralsund, in 1940 (Recklenbeck) Greifswald, university. Bergen (Isle of Rugen) 1,432. Wisby, 6,500.
		The whole kingdom contains about 104 towns, 80,250 villages, and 1,700 churches of the established.

WEALTH AND COMMERCE.

THOUGH Sweden is by no means favoured with reſpect to climate, though the greater part of it is barren, (the uncultivated parts being eſtimated at upwards of 110,000 ſquare miles) yet the induſtry of the inhabitants, in arts and agriculture, has raiſed Sweden to the rank of a ſecondary European power. However, notwithſtanding the great encouragement given to agriculture, Sweden is ſtill obliged to import 300,000 tons of corn, and 4,535 hogſheads of ſpirituous liquors. It imports, likewiſe, hemp, flax, ſalt, wine, beef, ſilk, paper, leather, and Eaſt and Weſt India goods. The exports conſiſt chiefly in wood and minerals. In 1781, Sweden exported 27,819 dozen of planks, 795 beams, and 1,258 balks of beech, 95,657 tons of tar, and 15,868 tons of pitch; ſome cod, upwards of 150,000 tons of herrings, of which England bought for more than 12,000l. ſterling; blubber or train-oil to the value of 28,468 ſilver dollars. Of the produce of the whale fiſhery, there was exported, in 1781, 606 tons of train-oil, and 68,000 pounds of whale-bone.

bone. The moſt valuable among the productions of Sweden are its minerals, principally copper and iron. Gold is found at Adelfort, in the province of Smaeland, to the amount of 850 ducats; but the expences of working this mine exceed the profits: a ſmall quantity of gold is found in Weſtmanland. The mines at Sala, in the ſame province, produce ſilver to the amount of upwards of 600 lb. there are alſo ſilver mines in Dalecarlia and Northfinnland. The total amount of the ſilver obtained from the Swediſh mines, in 1774, was 2,700lb. The copper mines at Falun and Garpenberg, in Dalecarlia, are very rich: the exportation of copper does, however, not exceed 6,000 ſhippound. Of the iron found in Nerike, Upland, Dalecarlia, &c. 320,000 ſhippound are exported. Sweden produces 35,000 lies-pound of ſalt-petre, 5,500 tons of allum; and it has likewiſe vitriol and ſulphur works. The value of the whole of exported minerals amounts to 2,300,000 German dollars: the exportation of wood is valued at 1 million; and that of tar, pitch, and pot-aſh, at 300,000 German dollars. Sweden exports alſo peltry, or furs of grey ſquirrels, bears,

wolves, foxes, ermine, martins, rein-deer, gluttons, &c. in great quantities. All the exported goods amounted, in 1768, to upwards of 13 millions,, and the imports to little more than 10 millions of filver dollars. (Tunberg). The Swedes trade to all parts of Europe, to the Levante, the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, to Africa and China. There is a Swediſh Eaſt India Company, who have advanced 3 millions of dollars to the crown, and pay a duty to the king on every voyage: there is, likewiſe, a Levante Company. The Bank of Sweden is a loan and paper bank: its profits are eſtimated at between 2 and 3 millions of dollars annually. The crown owed to this bank, in 1772, upwards of 45 millions of ſilver dollars. (Buſching. Schlozer). There are 38 commercial towns in the kingdom, among whom Stockholm, Gottenburg, and Marſtrand, are the principal. Sweden has endeavoured to avoid paying the diſagreeable duty in the Sound, by joining the inland lakes with the ſea, by a canal beginning not far from Stockholm from the gulf of Bothnia, and extending to the German ocean near Gothenburg; but the attempt has not yet ſucceeded.

GOVERN-

GOVERNMENT.

SINCE the memorable revolution in the year 1772, Sweden may, with great propriety, be called a monarchy. The ſenate, it is true, claims ſtill ſome ſhare in the adminiſtration; but its members are choſen by the king himſelf. On coming to the throne, the ſovereign engages to obſerve the fundamental laws of the kingdom: he has the abſolute diſpoſal of the army, and has the power of calling together as well as of diſſolving the aſſembly of the ſtates; but he cannot impoſe any new tax without conſulting the diet, whoſe conſent is neceſſary to levy them from the ſubject. The ſenate is the higheſt court or council in the kingdom, and is compoſed of 17 ſenators or ſupreme counſellors. The diet is formed by the deputies of the four eſtates, or orders of the nation, viz. the order of the nobility, the clergy, the citizens, and the peaſants: each order has its ſpeaker, who preſides over the reſpective deputies. The ſenate is divided into two departments; one of them has the

ſupreme

ſupreme inſpection over the adminiſtration of juſtice, over the mines, being the chief ſource of the national wealth, and the reviſion of all public accounts; the other department tranſacts all other branches of public and foreign buſineſs. The provinces are under governors, called provincial captains (Landhauptman). Juſtice is adminiſtered in every town by the civil magiſtrates. The whole kingdom is divided into 82 diſtricts of juriſdiction, each of which has its own court of juſtice, called *Haeradſting*. In theſe country courts, the judge is aſſiſted by a jury of 12 peaſants. From the deciſions of theſe courts, there lies appeal to the ſuperior courts, called *Lagmanſ*[illegible], of the latter to four ſupreme courts of judicature, eſtabliſhed at Stockholm, Upſal, Abo, and Waſa. The Roman, or Civil [illegible] is not in force in Sweden: juſtice is adminiſtered, without the delays uſual in other countries, according to the regulation of the code of laws publiſhed in the year 1736. (S. Codex Legum Suecicarum editus a C. Koenig. 1736). Other departments for the tranſaction of public buſineſs are the following;

ing: the War Office, the Exchequer, the Court of Admiralty, the Chancery, the Board of Trade, and the Board of Mines.

FINANCES.

THE revenue amounted, in 1772, to 11,089,122 ſilver dollars, the public expenditure to 11,466,125 ſilver dollars; and the national debt, exceeded, at that time, the ſum of 60 millions. Since the late revolution, the revenue has been encreaſed, by appropriating to the crown the lucrative monopoly in ſpirituous liquors, which is valued at upwards of [illegible] ſilver dollars. Mr. Tunberg eſtimated the ordinary revenue, in 1784, at [illegible] of ſix dollars. The revenue arising from the German province of Pomerania, amounted, in 1781, to 234,287 German dollars; and, in 1782, that of Pomerania and Wiſmar to 249,000 German dollars. The chatoulle, or private purſe of the king, is eſtimated at 200,000 rix dollars.

ARMY

ARMY.

IN 1784, it conſiſted of 50,421 men. The Swediſh forces are divided into (A), national troops, and (B), levied troops, moſtly foreigners: the firſt, being ſupplied by the Swediſh nation, and conſiſting of country people, who ſerve only during the ſeaſon of the reviews, have ſome reſemblance to a national militia: they are, however, much better diſciplined than militias commonly are. The infantry muſt be ſupplied and maintained by the order of the peaſants, the cavalry by the order of the nobility. The others (B), moſt of whom are foreigners, are perpetually on duty, and receive continual pay.

A. NATIONAL TROOPS.

INFANTRY.

22 national regiments of different ſtrength,		together 25,125
1 battalion ——	1,284	
1 —— of Chaſſeurs	128	

CAVALRY.

Horſe Guards — —	1,505
The noble Guard (6 companies)	395
5 regiments — —	5,000

Dragoons, 2 regiments	—	2,000
beſides		
1 Eſcadr. of Dragoons of	—	400
1 ——— ———	—	300
1 Comp. ———	—	100

B. Levied, or ſtanding TROOPS.

INFANTRY.

King's Guards	— —	2,800
7 regiments, ſome of 1,260 men,		
ſome of leſs	—	5,960
Sawolax Chaſſeurs	—	400

CAVALRY.

Huſſars	—	—	300
Light Dragoons	—	—	200

ARTILLERY.

5 Brigades	— —	3,230
5 ——— (Fortificats.)	—	2,706
		50,421

St. T.

NAVY.

25 ſhips of the line.
12—14 frigates.
50 galleys.
15—17,000 Sea-men.

Two

Two regiments of marines, together 1400 men. Some new ships of the line are now building, so as to make up the number of 30.

RELIGION.

THE religion established in Sweden is the Lutheran, which the sovereign must profess, and is engaged to maintain in the kingdom. Calvinists, Roman Catholics, and Jews, are tolerated. The superior clergy of Sweden have preserved the dignities of the Roman Catholic church; it is composed of the archbishop of Upsal, of 14 bishops, and 192 provosts or presidents. The jurisdiction in ecclesiastical matters is in the hands of 19 consistories. The number of the inferior clergy, comprehending the ministers of parishes, &c. amounts only to 1387.

GENE-

GENERAL REMARKS.

THE conſequence of Sweden is greatly diminiſhed, ſince the unfortunate wars of Charles XII. by which it loſt its richeſt provinces. And notwithſtanding all the encouragement given to agriculture, mining, and commerce, the population is yet ſo thin, and the climate ſo ſevere, that this kingdom is not likely to receive ſoon any conſiderable and rapid additions of power. The fate of the ſciences in Sweden has been much more fortunate. Good ſchools are eſtabliſhed in every part of the kingdom; there are three very uſeful univerſities at Upſal, Lund, and Abo; and the German univerſity of Greifswald, in the province of Pomerania. At Stockholm, Gothenburg, and Upſal, there are royal ſocieties of ſciences; academies for antiquities, the belles lettres, painting, and muſic, are eſtabliſhed in the capital. There is alſo a particular and very valuable inſtitution for promoting the ſtudy of Swediſh geography and topography, called Landmeter college; and a phyſiographical ſociety at Lund. Sweden has many men of learning diſtinguiſhed

for

for their knowledge of natural philoſophy, chemiſtry, political œconomy, &c. The ancient connection of this kingdom with France has been confirmed by the preſent king, who has opened for ever a free harbour to the French in conſideration of the iſland of St. Barthelemi, in the Weſt-Indies, ceded to him by France, in the year 1784. The neighbouring ſtates of Ruſſia and Denmark are very attentive to the motions of Sweden, which in former times proved to them an enemy of the greateſt conſequence.

TABLE

TABLE IV.

DENMARK.

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TABLE

TABLE IV. Poſſeſſions of Denmark, in Europe.

Extent, Diviſions, Poſſeſſions.	Square miles.	Population.	Populat. on every ſqu. mile	CHIEF TOWNS.
All the Daniſh Provinces — — —	18?.4?0 medium.	2,?1?,?27 Oed. 17?9. 2,?00,000 (?,500,000 the colonies included)	12	
A. DENMARK, properly ſo called, divided into ſeven governmments, and Sleſwick	12 944 (13,744)	1,125,000 Gentt. Mag. 1785.	86	Names. Num. of inhabitants.
1. Seeland Bernholm 2. Funen, or Fyen and Langland } Iſlands. 3. Laland and Falſter	3520	450,000 Buſch.	125	Copenhagen 80,000 70,514 Oed. 1769. Helſingoer 5000 Odenſee 5500 5209 Oed. Nyeborg 1451 Oed. Staalburg 4000 4160 Oed. Wiburg 1990 Oed. Staathus 3597 Oed.
4. Staalburg 5. Wiburg 6. Staathus } Jutland — — 7. Ripen	6784	400,000 Stat. Vb.	60	
Duchy of Sleſwick — — —	2640	241,605 Oed. 1769. 275,000 St. Ub. 277,000 Dan.og.N.T.	104	Sleſwick — 5629 Oed.
B. Duchy of HOLSTEIN, in Germany —	2800	310,000 Goett. Mag. and Fel. Journal, 1785.	111	Gluckſtaet — 2483 Oed. Rendſburg — 3000 3586 Oed. Kiel — 4500 Altona — 24,500 18,050 Oed.

C. NORWAY.

TABLE IV.

Norway, Faroe Iſlands, and Iceland.

Diviſion.	Square miles.	Population.	Popular. on every ſq. mile.	Chief Towns.
C. NORWAY. Divided into four governments, viz.	112,000	723,141 Oed. 725,000 [illegible] P. Muſ. 1783.	7	Drontheim 800 Ward
NORTH. 1. Drontheim	43,200		not yet 2	Bergen 18,000 Oed. 13,735
2. Bergen				Chriſtiania 2200 Oed. 7496
SOUTH. 3. Chriſtiania 4. Chriſtianſand	68,800		10	Chriſtianſand 3100 Friedrichſhall 3834 Oed. 3600 Konſberg 9 or Oed. 8068
D. FAROE Iſlands the largeſt of them Strome		5000		Thorſhaven
E. ICELAND	40,400 St.	46,201 Oeder 1769. Troil.	1	Skalholt Hoolum

The whole of Denmark contains 68 towns, 22 ſmaller towns, or boroughs, 15 earldoms, 16 baronies, 932 eſtates of the inferior nobility, 70 0 villages.

Norway contains only 18 towns, two earldoms, and 27 eſtates of the other nobility. (Buſching.)

D.

DANISH POSSESSIONS IN THE OTHER PARTS OF THE GLOBE.

ASIA.

	Inhabitants.
Settlements in Coromandel	20,000

1. Tranquebar, with the 2. Fort of Danſborg. 3. The Nicobar, or Frederick's Iſlands, north of Sumatra. 4. Some factories or lodges.

AFRICA.

1. Chriſtiaanſbourg. 2. Fredenſbourg (on the coaſt of Guinea). 3. Some factories, near Axim.

AMERICA.

1. Greenland, divided into Eaſt or Old Greenland, and Weſt Greenland, a very extenſive country, of many thouſand ſquare miles, but very thinly inhabited. *Cranz* reckons only 957 ſtated, and 7000 wandering inhabitants in Weſt Greenland. Old or Eaſt Greenland has been ſhut up by the ice, and only lately, in 1786, diſcovered again by a Daniſh captain. The Danes are the only

nation who have ſettlements in Weſt Greenland; where, under their protection, the Moravian brethren have miſſionaries, and very uſeful eſtabliſhments. Crantz, and after him Fabricius, give the beſt deſcription of this country. 2. The iſlands of St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John, in the Weſt-Indies. Here the Moravian brethren have alſo uſeful eſtabliſhments. (See Oldenburg's *Beſchreibung* der Inſel St. Thomas.)

WEALTH AND COMMERCE.

IF the cold and barren kingdom of Norway did not require large ſupplies of corn from Denmark, the latter would be able to export a conſiderable quantity of it. Sleſwic, Jutland, Seeland, and Lekand, are very rich corn countries. Black cattle, which is in great abundance and of great excellence in theſe provinces, is a moſt valuable article of commerce with the neighbouring provinces of Germany: between 60 and 80,000 head of cattle are annually ſold. Denmark is rather deficient in ſheep, with which the climate does not agree ſo well. The chief

produce

produce of Norway is wood and timber; the annual exports of maſts, planks, balks, and fir-wood, amount to the value of 1,000,000 rixdollars: this trade is chiefly carried on by the towns of Chriſtiania, and Drontheim; one diſtrict in the government of Drontheim ſupplies annually 535,000 planks. Norway exports great variety of peltry, conſiſting of ſkins of bears, lynxes, wolves, ermine, grey ſquirrels, and ſeveral ſorts of foxes, rein-deer, elks, &c. The mines of Norway are very valuable; there is but little gold found, except at Edsfort, in the government of Chriſtiania. The mines at Konſberg and Jarlſberg produce ſilver to the value of 300—350,000 rixdollars annually; and they employ upwards of 4000 miners: government, however, does not derive any revenue from theſe mines, the expences of which exceed the profits. The iron-works in this kingdom produce an annual profit of 60,000 rixdollars. About 4—5000 ſhippound of copper are exported; the greateſt mine of this metal is at Roeraa, in the government of Drontheim. The number of miners in Norway amounts to about 8000. Norway has very valuable fiſheries. Accord-

ing to Pontoppidan, upwards of 100 ſpecies of fiſhes are caught in theſe ſeas; of which the articles of cod, herrings, and whales, are valued at near two million of rixdollars. The ſame author informs us, that Norway exports large quantities of trainoil. The imports of Denmark conſiſt chiefly in corn; as to Norway, only $\frac{1}{114}$ part of it is fit for agriculture; beſides corn, the articles of ſalt, flax, linen, wool, brandy, wine, fruits, ſilk, ſpices, hardware, and luxuries, are imported. Norway being thinly peopled, and little acquainted with luxury, and poſſeſſing the above-mentioned valuable articles of exportation, has, upon the whole, the balance of trade in its favour, which is againſt the kingdom of Denmark. The whole of the exports of Denmark and Holſtein, amounted in 1768 to 1,382,681 rixdollars; the imports to 1,976,800 rd. The exports of Norway, to 1,711,369, and the imports to 1,238,284 dollars. (Buſching). There are at preſent two trading companies, an Eaſt-India, and a Guinea and Weſt-India company; an Inſurance company, and a paper-bank. The paſſage through the Sund, between Helſingoer

goer and Helſingborg, is very much frequented: in 1783, 11,161 ſhips paſſed it; the number of ſhips is at preſent more than double the number of thoſe which paſſed it in 1750. Manufactures do not thrive in Denmark; there are, however, ſeveral manufactures of cloth, hardware, china, gloves, &c. refineries of ſugar, ſaltpetre-works, &c. For the encouragement and convenience of inland trade, a navigable canal has been drawn lately from Kiel, through Holſtein, to the river Eyder; by the means of which, the Baltic and the German ſea are connected. The chief commercial towns in this kingdom are, Copenhagen, Flenſburg, and Kiel; and Bergen and Drontheim, in Norway.

GOVERNMENT.

THE ancient kings of Denmark exerciſed a power limited by the very conſiderable rights and privileges poſſeſſed by the eſtates of the kingdom, viz. the nobility, the clergy, and the commons. It was no longer ago than the beginning of 1661, that the eſtates,

eſtates, annoyed by diſſenſions among themſelves, and guided by leaders indifferent to the ineſtimable bleſſings of liberty, took the raſh ſtep of ſurrendering their native rights to their monarch. Since this ſervile act of ſubmiſſion, the kings of Denmark have been poſſeſſed of an abſolute and uncontrouled authority, ſubject to the conditions of their profeſſing the eſtabliſhed Proteſtant religion, and preſerving the dominions of the kingdom undivided. The order of ſucceſſion was ſettled in 1665, by the Lex Regia, which renders women capable of ſucceeding to the throne. The law of Indigenate, which excludes foreigners, not naturalized, from holding any employment of truſt or profit, was introduced by the preſent king. Chriſtian V. publiſhed an excellent code of civil and criminal laws, for the uſe of the kingdoms of Denmark and Norway; Iceland retaining its very ancient and peculiar cuſtomary law. The Roman or civil law is not in force in this kingdom, nor is any regard paid to other foreign ſyſtems of law. Juſtice is adminiſtered in the ſeveral courts with great fairneſs and diſpatch, according to the ſimple and excellent regulations of the code of

laws. The higheſt department of adminiſtration is the cabinet, or ſupreme council, compoſed, at preſent, of the hereditary prince and ſix miniſters of ſtate, preſidents of the ſubordinate departments; among which, that of foreign affairs is conſidered as the moſt honourable. There are two chanceries, one for the Daniſh, and the other for the German language. Each province has a particular governor preſiding over the provincial departments.

FINANCES.

Seven million of dollars (Goett. Mag.)

In the year 1769, 6,272,000 dollars.

1. Denmark	———	3,106,000
2. Norway	———	1,600,000
3. Sleſwik and Holſtein	—	1,328,000
4. Oldenburg, Delmenhorſt, and Ploen	———	390,007
5. Weſt-India Iſlands	——	133,000

The King's private Chatoulle.

1. The cuſtom of the Sund	—	700,000
2. From the town of Altona	—	18,000

(Buſching's Woech. N. 1777, and Deutſches Muſ. 1783.) Debts in 1771, about 15 million of dollars. (Buſching's Mag. and Briefe ueber den Finanz-plan. v. Dannemark.)

The debts were in 1770 only about 1,400,000 dollars, and ſince that time they have been ſtill more diminiſhed.

ARMY.

According to the new plan of 1785, which has been almoſt executed, the number of the army will be as follows: 1. A. Cavalry 6073 men; conſiſting, of horſe-guards, only 117 men; of four regiments of cavalry, four regiments of dragoons, two corps of huſſars. B. Infantry, 33,475 men; viz. foot-guards 483; ſixteen regiments of national troops and foreigners, two corps of chaſſeurs, garriſon troops, and artillery.

	Men.
2. For Norway ———	35,715
Cavalry, four reg. of dragoons	4349
Infantry, two reg. moſtly preſſed foreigners ———	2294
——— Eight reg. national —	27,528

Infantry,

Infantry, Skaters (ſkielobere)	—	960
Garriſon 156, and artillery	———	436
The corps of engineers conſiſts only of 20 officers.		
Total of the army		75,263

The expences of the army will amount to only 1,663,922 rixdollars. Pol. J. 1785, and Schloezer. There is a military ſchool at Copenhagen.

NAVY.

(1779) Sixty-one Sail, viz.

Thirty-one ſhips of the line.
Nine ditto of 50 guns.

Twenty-one frigates, beſides ſome ſloops, bombs, and fire-ſhips. Only 25 ſhips of the line and 15 frigates are fit for ſervice. There have been ſome more built lately. There are employed in the King's ſhips 5000 ſailors, beſides a corps of marines. At Copenhagen there is a naval academy. (Pol. J. 1784, and Hiſt. Portf. 1784.)

RELIGION.

IN Denmark, as in Sweden, the eſtabliſhed religion is the Lutheran, which was introduced in the year 1536. Chriſtians of all other profeſſions, and Jews, are tolerated. Miſſions for the converſion of pagans are eſtabliſhed in the more remote poſſeſſions of this crown, in Lapland, Greenland, and Tranquebar. The Daniſh clergy conſiſts of biſhops, provoſts, and miniſters. The biſhops, called in public acts ſuperintendants, are ſix in number, of whom the biſhop of Seeland is the firſt in rank. All eccleſiaſtical affairs are ſubject to the regulations and the juriſdiction of the college of Supreme Inſpectors; the provoſts convene every ſix months a ſubordinate meeting of the miniſters under their inſpection, in which they preſide, and over which they exerciſe a juriſdiction; from which an appeal lies to the Supreme Inſpectors.

GENE-

GENERAL REMARKS.

BY a late agreement with Ruſſia, Denmark is freed from the dangerous neighbourhood of this power in Holſtein; and as it has at preſent nothing to fear from Sweden, which was formerly its moſt formidable enemy, this kingdom has it in its power to enjoy a very happy and peaceable ſituation. It has careſully and wiſely avoided to engage in any war for theſe ſixty years paſt; and has made every effort to increaſe its population, and to encourage agriculture, the manufactures, and the ſciences. Denmark has two univerſities, that of Copenhagen, and that of Kiel; two academical colleges, at Soroe and Odenſee; and thirty-two other great ſchools in the principal towns. There is at Copenhagen a royal ſociety of ſciences; an hiſtorical ſociety for the ſtudy of Northern hiſtory; another of Icelandic hiſtory and literature; an academy for painting and architecture; a college of phyſicians and ſurgeons; and another ſociety of ſciences at Drontheim.

This

This kingdom ſhares with Sweden the praiſe of promoting ſciences, by ſending numbers of learned men, at the public expence, to all parts of the globe, in order to make uſeful diſcoverics.

TABLE

TABLE V.

POLAND.

AUTHORITIES.

1. TABLEAU Hiſtorique & Politique de Pologne, dans les Loiſirs du Chevalier d'Eon. à Amſterd. 1779.
2. Rzaczyſki Hiſtoria Naturalis Poloniae & Lithuaniae. Gedani, 1773, cum auctario, 1736.
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4. *Grundriſs der Heutigen Staats Verfaſſung von Polen*, i. e. An Abſtract of the preſent Conſtitution of Poland.. Frankfort, 1765 (German.)
5. *Geſchichte der Staats Veränderungen von Polen*, i. e. The Hiſtory of the Political Revolutions of Poland, 1777 (German.)
6. Travels through Poland, by Coxe, Guettard, Caroſi, Bernoulli, &c.

TABLE V. POLAND.

Extent and Divisions.	Square Miles.	Population.	Populat. for every squ. mile.	Chief Towns and Number of Inhabitants.
46° 30°—57° 30° latitude. 16 ——— 34 east longitude.	160,800	8,350,000 B. 8,500,000 medium 9,000,000 C.	53	230 Towns
A. Kingdom of POLAND — —	137,600			155 Towns
a. Great Poland, divided into 12 Diſtricts, called Woidwodſhips				Warſaw, 50,000 inhabitants (8,000 Diſſidents B.) Poſen, 4,650 Frauſtadt, 4,000 Gneſen, 563 houſes B.
b. Little Poland, divided into				
1. Three Woidwodſhips				Krakow, 18—20,000 with the ſuburbs B.
2. Polachia, properly Podlachin, divided into 3 Counties				Sandonicerz, 2,060
3. Chelm, the remaining part of Red Ruſſia				Lubbin, 26,614
4. Podolia and Bratzſaw				Chelm, 875
5. Kew				Koreſk, 2,000
6. Volhynia				Kaminiek, 1,120 B.
B. Great Duchy of LITHUANIA —	23,000			
1. Lithuania, properly divided into 2 Woidwodſhips				Wilna, 20,925
2. White Ruſſia, only 2 Woidwodſhips remaining after the partition				Grodno, 2,200
3. Black Ruſſia, divided into 3 diſtricts				Kowno, 2,250
4. Polеſia				Brzeſc, 1,790
5. Duchy of Szamaite				Mins, 1,840 B.

The

The following ſtates are alſo generally conſidered as belonging to Poland, notwithſtanding they are not its ſubjects.

1. The Republic of Danzig, 33 villages. The town contains about 50,000 inhabitants.

2. The Republic of Thorn, 42 villages, almoſt all under the ſovereignty of Pruſſia. The town contains 20,000 inhabitants.

3. The Duchy of Courland and Semgallen.

	Square Miles.	Population	Population for every Square Mile	Towns.
1. Curlandia 2. Semgallen	4,112	300,000	73	Goldingen Liebau Mitau, the reſidence has 11,000 inhab.

There are in Poland			2,377 villages
Noblemen's eſtates			22,032
Abbeys	—	—	37
Convents of Monks			579
——— Nuns			86
Houſes in general			1,674,328
Peaſants	—		1,243,000
Jews	—		500,000

WEALTH AND COMMERCE.

POLAND is one of the weakeſt ſtates in Europe; the reaſon of this is, the oppreſſion of the tradeſpeople in the towns, and the ſlavery of the peaſantry. The circulating ſpecie is valued at only 13 millions and a half of German dollars; and intereſt is ſtill as high as from 7 to 10 per cent. If the ſkill of the natives in agriculture bore any proportion to the fertility of the ſoil, Poland muſt needs be one of the richeſt countries in the world; for though a large part of it lies uncultivated, it exports no inconſiderable quantity of corn: the foreſts and mines of Poland, if duly attended to, and alſo its furs and cattle, might produce a very large ſum. There are few manufactures in this kingdom excepting thoſe at Grodnow. Want of induſtry and of freedom, are the chief reaſons that the balance of trade is ſo much againſt Poland. The exports are corn, hemp, flax, horſes, ſome of them wild horſes, cattle, (about 100,000 oxen every year) peltry, timber, metals, manna, wax, honey, and ſome other leſs conſiderable articles: the

value

value of them, in the year 1777 amounted to nearly 30 millions of dollars: the imports conſiſting chiefly in wine, cloth, ſilk, hardware, gold, ſilver, Eaſt and Weſt India goods, were ſuppoſed to amount to no leſs than 47 millions of dollars.

GOVERNMENT.

SINCE the late revolution, the government of Poland is Ariſtocratical. Its nominal head is an elective king, ſo limited, that in public acts he is often called only the firſt order of the republic. On being elected, the king is obliged immediately to ſign the Pacta Conventa of Poland. The ſovereign power is veſted in the hands of the three orders of the ſtate, the king, the ſenate, and the nobility. Out of the latter, which is very numerous, the ſenate is choſen, which is divided into 5 claſſes; the clergy conſtitute the firſt; the next in rank is compoſed of the governors of the provinces. The ſenators have ſeats and perſonal votes in the diet: the

reſt of the nobility ſend their repreſentatives, called meſſengers, to the number of upwards of 100, whoſe expences are defrayed by a daily allowance. The diet formed by theſe perſons has its regular, or ordinary, and extraordinary meetings. The firſt are held twice at Warſaw, and once at Grodno, every two years: the extraordinary meetings are convened by the king for particular purpoſes and occaſions, ſuch as relate to internal œconomy or war. All affairs of juſtice, of which the diet has cognizance in the laſt inſtance, are decided by majority of votes; but affairs of ſtate may be interrupted by a ſingle diſſentient voice, called the Liberum Veto. There are, in Poland occaſional tary aſſemblies, called Confederations formed by different parties of the nobility in oppoſition to one another, and under the direction of a leader, called Marſhal of the Confederation. For the diſpatch of the common courſe of buſineſs, there was erected, in 1774, a permanent council (conſeil permanent) of which the king is the head; the other members are 3 biſhops, 11 woiwods, 4 members of the ſenate, and 8 noblemen. It has 5 departments; that of foreign affairs,

fairs, of internal police, of juſtice, the board of war, and the board of finances.

The provinces are governed by Woiwods, Staroſts, and Caſtellans, names which are expreſſive of the different extent and importance of their governments. Since the year 1775, it is a fundamental law, that none but a native can be elected king of Poland; and he is to be choſen by the unanimous votes of a particular diet, aſſembled for that purpoſe at Cracow, or at Warſaw: during the interregnum, the archbiſhop of Gneſen governs the kingdom, and has the right of calling together the [illegible]

The [illegible] laws of the kingdom are the [illegible] and thoſe ſtatutes which are enacted at the diet. The Roman law is not generally nor univerſally in force; the code of laws is in the Poliſh, not in the Latin language. The inferior claſſes of ſubjects, the citizens, and peaſants, are ſtill ſlaves to the nobility, their feudal lords: theſe are the ſole arbiters of juſtice on their eſtates, and in the towns. There are, however, ſeveral courts of appeal in important cauſes; the ſupreme court of appeal is one of the departments of the conſeil permanent.

ARMY.

In the year 1784, it conſiſted of 17,404 men.

A. Army of the Crown, or of Poland.		
General Staff	—	27
Cavalry	—	5,483
Infantry	—	7,762
		13,272
B. Army of Lithuania.		
General Staff	—	26
Cavalry	—	2,425
Infantry	—	1,681
		4,132

According to an act of the ſenate, in 1776, the crown army ought to amount to 13,409, and that of Lithuania to 4770 men. The whole military eſtabliſhment is ſubject to the regulations of the conſcil permanent.

FINANCES.

FINANCES.

(Medium of the years 1782—1784.)

Revenue 3,193,635 German dollars
Expences 2,825,453

Private chatoulle of the king, 1,333,000 florins. (Ba. W. Nach.)

The debts of Poland run high; the whole amount is eſtimated at 130 million of florins, of which only 1,144,000 florins were acknowledged by the diet, and half a million of florins every year is appropriated to the payment of them. (B. Mag.)

RELIGION.

THE eſtabliſhed religion is the Roman Catholic: Proteſtants, to whom the name of Diſſidents is now confined, are tolerated. In former times, the rights and numbers of the Proteſtants were ſo great, that they claimed equal authority with the Roman Catholics; and about 1573, both parties were called diſſidentes quoad religionem. Yet, afterwards, the Proteſtants ſuffered very great oppreſſion till after the late

civil

civil wars; their rights were, at length, ſettled in 1778, by the interference of the neighbouring powers. They are, however, ſtill incapable of holding the ſenatorial dignity, and are admitted only to inferior appointments. Beſides Calviniſts and Lutherans, there are, in Poland, congregations of Greeks, Unitarians and Arians, all of whom are now comprehended under the name of Diſſidents. In a country as ſuperſtitious as Poland, the power of the prieſts, and the authority of the Pope, is ſtill very great. The Pope's nuncio has a very extenſive eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction. At the head of the Roman Catholic clergy is the primate of Poland, who is archbiſhop of Gneſen: he ſtiles himſelf a prince: he has the firſt rank among the ſenators, and is legatus natus of the Holy See. There are, in Poland, 12 biſhopricks, 37 abbeys, 579 convents of men, and 86 of women. The knights of Malta, reſiding in Poland, belong likewiſe to the clergy. (B). The Lutheran church, is governed by a preſbytery, or conſiſtory of the Antiſtites of the church and the miniſters: there are great conteſts ſubſiſting between the adherents of this church and the Catholics. (Reſumé de

. l'affaire des Diffidens, a 1783.) The Calviniſts have one ſenior general and three ſeniors, to whom the government of their church is entruſted.

GENERAL REMARKS.

THE greateſt check Poland met with in its progreſs to proſperity, was the late partition; by which, and the preceding diſturbances, it is now entirely at the mercy of the neighbouring powers. The preſent king, who is one of the moſt reſpectable and enlightened princes, has experienced the greateſt difficulties, and has been very unſucceſsful in attempting to ſupport the declining grandeur of his country. Learning is at a low ebb: there are but two univerſities at Cracow and at Wilna, under whoſe direction are all the ſubordinate ſchools. The king, as well as ſome of the firſt nobility, endeavour, to the utmoſt of their power, to encourage arts and ſciences.

TABLE VI.

GERMANY.

AUTHORITIES.

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9. *Geſchichte des Deutſchen Handels*, &c. The Hiſtory of the Commerce of Germany, by M. Fiſcher, 1785, 8vo. (German.)
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13. *Neue Staats-und Erdbeſchreibung des Schwaebiſchen Kreiſes.* A Political and Geographical Account of the Circle of Suabia, 1780 (German.)
14. *Geographiſche Reiſen durch Deutſchland*, &c. Geographical Travels through Germany, 1781 (German.)

15. *Beſch-*

15. *Beſchreibung der Heſſiſchen Lande.* Deſcription of the Heſſian Provinces, by Mr. Engelhard, 1778 (German.)

17. *Die Fabricken Deutſchlands.* On the Manufactures of Germany. Frankfort, 1780, 2 vols.

18. *Beſchreibung des Ober und Unterharzes.* Deſcription of the Upper and Lower Hartz Mountains, by Mr. Voigt, 1771, (German.)

TABLE

TABLE VI. GERMANY.

Extent and Divisions.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Populat. for every sq. Mile.
45° 4′—54° 40′ lat. 5°——19° east long.	177,984, B. 204,736, Cr. 192,000 St. U.	25,000,000, B. 27,401,579, Cr. 24,000,000, Gatterer	
	191,571, medium	25,700,000 medium	134
1. Upper Saxony	32,000	3,700,000	115
2. Lower Saxony	20,480	2,100,000	102
3. Weſtphalia	20,000	2,300,000	115
4. Upper Rhine	8,000	1,000,000	125
5. Lower Rhine	7,328	1,100,000	163
6. Burgundy	7,504	1,880,000	255
7. Franconia	7,744	1,000,000	125
8. Swabia	11,664	1,800,000	154
9. Bavaria	16,320	1,600,000	98
10. Auſtria	34,320	4,182,000	121
11. Bohemia	15,376	2,266,000	148
12. Moravia	6,336	1,137,000	179
13. Sileſia	11,520	1,800,000	157
14. Luſatia	2,880	400,000	136

Diviſions

Subdiviſions of each of the Ten Circles, viz.

1. Circle of Upper SAXONY.

SUBDIVISIONS.

1. Duchy of Pomerania. 2. Duchy of Saxe-Weimar. 3. Duchy of Gotha. 4. Coburg. 5. Meinungen. 6. Hildburghauſen. 7. Eiſenach. 8. Thuringia. 9. Anhalt. 10. Schwarzburg. 11. Electorate of Brandenburg. 12. Electorate of Saxony. 13. County of Mansfeld. 14. Wernigerode 15. Barby. 16. Hohenſtein. 17. Hazfeld. 18. Reus. 19. Shaumburg. 20. Merſeburg. 21. Naunburg Zeitz. 22. Walkenried. 23. Abbey of Quedlingburg.

2. Circle of Lower SAXONY.

SUBDIVISIONS.

1. Biſhopric of Hildeſheim. 2. Biſhopric of Lubec. 3. Abbey of Ganderſheim. 4. Duchy of Magdeburg. 5. Duchy of Halberſtadt. 6. Duchy of Bremen. 7. Duchy of Celle. 8. Duchy of Grubenhagen. 9. Duchy of Calenberg. 10. Duchy of Lauenburg.

enburg. 11. Duchy of Wolfenbuttel. 12. Duchy of Mecklenburg. 13. Duchy of Holſtein. 14. County of Rantzau. 15. Principality of Blankenburg. 16. Principality of Schwerin. 17. Principality of Ratzeburg. 18. Imperial Cities: Hamburg. 19. Lubec. 20. Goſlar. 21. Miilhauſen. 22. Nordhauſen. 23. Bremen.

3. Circle of WESTPHALIA.

SUB-DIVISIONS.

1. Biſhopricks of Munſter. 2. Oſnaburg. 3. Paderborn. 4. Liege. 5. Duchies of Cleves. 6. Juliers. 7. Bergen. 8. Principalities of Minden. 9. Verden. 10. Ooſtfrieſland. 11. Naſſau. 12. Oldenburg. 13. Counties of Lippe. 14. Bentheim. 15. Teklenburg. 16. Hoya. 17. Diepholz. 18. Wied. 19. Sayn. 20. Rietberg. 21. Limburg. 22. Seven Abbies. 23. Imperial Cities, Cologne. 24. Aix la Chapelle. 25. Dortmund, beſides ſome ſmaller counties and lordſhips.

4. Circle of the UPPER RHINE.

SUB-DIVISIONS.

Biſhopricks of Worms, Spire, Straſburg, Baſel, Fulda; Great Maſterſhip of the Knights of St. John, at Heiterſheim; 3 Provoſties, the Landgraviates of Heſſe Caſſel; Darmſtadt, Homberg, Rotenburg, the Principalities of Naſſau, Deux Ponts, Sponheim, Veldenz, Simmern, Lautern, Waldec, Salm; Counties, Hanau Lichtenberg, Hanau Munzenberg, Sponheim, Iſeburg, Witgenſtein, Falkenſtein, Leiningen, &c. Imperial towns, Worms, Spire, Frankfort on the Main, Wezlar.

5. Circle of the LOWER RHINE

Alſo called Electoral Circle

SUB-DIVISIONS.

Four Electorates of Mentz, Trier, Cologne, and the Palatinate; Duchy of Aremberg, Balley of Coblenz, belonging to the Teutonic Order; Counties of Beilſtein, Lower Iſenburg. The Prince of Turn and Taxis, Poſtmaſter-general of the Empire, is one of the ſtates of this circle, but his eſtates are not ſituated in this circle.

6. Circle

6. Circle of BURGUNDY.

SUB-DIVISIONS.

Formerly 17 provinces of the Netherlands belonged to it; the remaining parts of this circle are thoſe provinces which belong at preſent to the houſe of Auſtria, viz. Duchies of Brabant, Limburg, Luxemburg, Gueldre; counties of Flanders, Hennegau, Namur; marquiſate of Antwerp, Malines.

7. Circle of FRANCONIA.

SUB-DIVISIONS.

The biſhopricks of Bamburg, Wurzburg, Eichſtedt, the territory of the great maſter of the Teutonic order, Mergentheim; marquiſate of Anſpach, Bareuth; counties of Schwarzenberg, Wertheim, Hohenlohe, Caſtell, &c. The Imperial towns of Nurenberg, Rothenburg, Windſheim, Schweinfurt, Weiſſenburg.

8. Circle of SWABIA.

SUB-DIVISIONS.

Biſhopricks of Coſtanz and Augſburg; abbies, Elwangen, Kempten, Lindau, Buchau, &c. and twenty more; duchy of Wurtemberg; marquiſate of Baaden; principalities of Hohenzollern (the origin of the

houſe of Pruſſia) Furſtenberg, Oettingen; counties of Konigſegg, Baar, Hohenembs, &c. and many baronies; twenty Imperial towns, the principal of which are: Augſburg, Nordling, Ulm, Heilbronn, Hall, Reutling, &c.

9. Circle of BAVARIA.

SUB-DIVISIONS.

The archbiſhoprick of Salzburg; the biſhopricks of Freiſingen, Paſſau, Regenſburg; the provoſty of Bertolſgaden; the abbies of St. Emeran, Lower and Upper Munſter; the duchy of Bavaria; the upper palatinate, Neuburg; the principalities of Sulzbach, Leuchtenberg; counties of Sternſtein, and ſeven others; the Imperial town of Regenſburg.

10. Circle of AUSTRIA.

SUB-DIVISIONS.

1. Archduchy of Auſtria, or Lower Auſtria. 2. Duchy of Stiria. 3. Carinthia. 4. Carniola. 5. The Auſtrian Friaul, or Goritia. 6. The Littorale, or the government of Trieſte. 7. Tyrol. 8. Upper Auſtria. 9. The biſhopricks of Trident or Trent. 10. Brixen. 11. Balley, Auſtria. 12. Bal. of Traſp.

Beſides

Beſides theſe ten circles, there belong alſo to the German empire: 1. The kingdom of Bohemia, divided into ſixteen circles. 2. The marquiſate of Moravia, divided into five circles (both Auſtrian provinces). 3. The marquiſate of Luſatia (belonging to the elector of Saxony). 4. Sileſia, only the ſmaller part of it, ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria, belongs at preſent to the Roman empire. (For the diviſions of Sileſia conſult the two following tables.) 5. The three circles of immediate lordſhips or ſignories, called the eſtates of the independent and immediate knighthood of the empire, viz. 1. that of Swabia; 2. of Franconia; 3. of the Rhine; they have no vote at the Diet, but are under the protection of the empire; each of theſe circles, which conſiſt of ſmaller counties, baronies, abbies, ſmall towns, &c. has its own directors. The Hundſruck belongs to the third circle. 6. The lordſhips of Jever, Kniphauſen, Rheda, Mumpelgard, Schauen, and twenty-eight more. 7. Some lordſhips, which are governed in common by more than one ancient noble family, and which are called, Immediate Villages of the Empire.

PRODUCTIONS AND COMMERCE.

FROM the advantageous ſituation and the great extent of Germany, from the various appearance of the ſoil, the number of its mountains, foreſts, and large rivers, we muſt naturally expect, and we actually find an extraordinary variety and vaſt plenty of uſeful products. The northern, and chiefly the north-eaſt parts, furniſh many ſorts of peltry, as ſkins of foxes, bears, wolves, ſquirrels, lynxes, wild cats, boars, &c. the ſouthern parts produce excellent wines and fruits; the middle provinces great plenty of corn, cattle, and minerals. Mines have been explored in Germany from the earlieſt times, and the riches derived from them were in a great meaſure the cauſe and the ſupport of the former celebrated trade of the Venetians. (See Fiſcher's Eſſay on the Trade of the Germans.) The Hartz-mountains in Lower Saxony contain gold, ſilver, copper, lead, iron, zinc, cobalt, vitriol, ſulphur, and other minerals: gold, however, is found only in the lower Hartz, to the amount of ſome hundred ducats; ſilver is coined annually in the upper

Hartz,

Hartz, to the amount of 600,000, or according to other ſtatements, 655,000 dollars: and the value of all the minerals of the Hartz amounts to near double that ſum. The mountains of Upper Saxony are ſtill richer; they have yielded not leſs than 34,000 lb. of ſilver annually; and the famous Saxon cobalt, chiefly uſed in making the blue colour called ſmalte, is reckoned to be nearly equal in value to the above quantity of ſilver. The quantity of iron and lead Germany ſupplies is extraordinary: the iron-works and founderies of Smalkalden, Iſerlohe, Herzberg, Solingen, &c. are very little inferior to the iron-works in England. Heſſe Caſſel, as well as Heſſe Darmſtadt, the principalities of Naſſau, and ſome neighbouring provinces, abound in copper, iron, and lead. The Palatinate is remarkable for its minerals, chiefly for its quick-ſilver, of which Deuxponts alone produces 50,000 lb. a year. The minerals of the provinces belonging to the houſe of Auſtria, the value of which is remarkably great, and thoſe of the Pruſſian provinces, neither of which are here ſpoken of, will be noticed in the two ſubſequent tables. Salt is found in Germany in ſuch

abundance and ſo great purity, as in few other countries. The ſalt-works of Salzbourg, in the circle of Bavaria, are immenſe; the Durnberg yields annually 750,000 lb. I ſhall not dwell upon thoſe of Swabia, of Allendorf, Naunheim, Hall in Upper Saxony, Creuznach, Schoenebeck, which are perhaps the greateſt ſalt-works that either now are or ever were; but I muſt not omit to take notice, that the beſt or pureſt ſalt we know of is that of Lunenburg, in the Hanoverian dominions. The articles of leſs uſe, as for inſtance, topazes, garnets, emeralds, cryſtals, do not deſerve any particular mention; but the fine clay of Upper and Lower Saxony, of Heſſe, and the Palatinate, forms a very conſiderable object of commerce, as it is uſed in making the porcelaine of Dreſden, Berlin, Furſtenberg, Frankenthal, &c. ſuperior to all other ſorts of porcelaine, except that of Japan and China. Pitcoal is found in Sileſia, in the circles of Burgundy, and of Weſtphalia, and in Heſſe. The ſmall biſhopric of Liege exports annually to the value of near 100,000 ducats. In other parts plenty of fuel is ſupplied by the foreſts. The mineral waters of Germany are in high repute, and

prov

prove conſiderable articles of trade. The electorate of Treves gains 80,000 florins annually by that of Seltze; the prince of Waldeck 40,000 dollars by that of Pyrmont. The Spa waters produce a revenue of 60,000 dollars; and thoſe of Aix la Chapelle, Wiſbaden, the Schlangenbath, Embs, Rehberg, &c. ſums proportioned to their reputation and their ſalutary effects. There are in Germany exceeding fine materials for building; the mountains near the Rhine furniſh the beſt baſaltes, and other ſtrong and uſeful ſorts of lava, the greateſt part of which is ſold to the Dutch; the mountains of Saxony and Franconia contain excellent granite, porphyry, and marble quarries.

Notwithſtanding the northerly ſituation of Germany, vines proſper in the greateſt part of it, viz. in both the circles of the Rhine, Swabia, Franconia, Upper Saxony, Weſtphalia, Bohemia, and Auſtria. Among the German wines, thoſe of the Rhine and Swabia claim the firſt rank; the beſt ſorts are that of Hochheim, commonly called old hock; that of Johanneſberg, Rudeſheim, and Bacharach, &c. Excellent fruits are found in great abundance in the ſouthern provinces; thus,

thus, for inſtance, Lankheim, a ſmall village in the circle of the Rhine, ſells ſometimes, in one year, dried plums to the amount of 50,000 florins. The apples of Leipzick, &c. are a conſiderable article of exportation. Tobacco is cultivated in large quantities: the Palatinate, for inſtance, exports to the amount of 800,000 florins annually; Baireuth 50,000 cwt. of the ſame article. The richeſt corn countries are both Saxonies, Holſtein, Mecklenburg, Bavaria, and Pomerania: Flax and hemp are produced chiefly in Lower Saxony, Weſtphalia, and Sileſia. The great value of this branch of trade is too well known to need any particular mention. In the two next tables of the Auſtrian and Pruſſian monarchies ſeveral facts will be ſtated, which are able to convey a clearer idea of the fertility and produce of certain provinces of Germany. The greateſt trading towns of Germany are at preſent, in general, the Imperial cities, Hamburg, Lubeck, Bremen, Frankfurt on the Main: none of them a ſeaport town; yet they are ſituated on large rivers, and the three firſt not far from the ſea. Formerly theſe three cities commanded, in a great meaſure, the trade of all Europe,

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while they were at the head of the famous Hanſeatic league; and though their preſent power and opulence is no longer equal to their influence in former ages, they ſtill may be conſidered as the greateſt factories or emporiums of Germany. A conſiderable inland trade is carried on at the fairs of Leipzick, Brunſwic Frankfurt on the Oder, and Frankfurt on the Main. As to the national induſtry, I ſhall obſerve, that there are ſcarce any articles of trade, convenience, and luxury not manufactured in Germany. If the Germans are inferior to the Engliſh in the manufactures of cloth, hardware, and in the articles of luxury, the cauſes muſt perhaps entirely be looked for in the political ſituation of this country: the great number of princes, the variety of the forms of government, the different intereſts and mutual jealouſy of the petty ſtates, are great checks on the commerce and proſperity of the whole. The great number of courts require large ſums of money, which might be appropriated to uſeful purpoſes, and the encouragement of induſtry; they keep up a predilection for a court and military life among the nobility and gentry, and a contempt for the employ-

ments of a tradeſman and a manufacturer. The jealouſy of ſurrounding neighbours can greatly confine the market of a ſmall country, whoſe induſtry is greater than theirs; and the difficulty of obtaining their concurrence in meaſures of general utility, is frequently the cauſe why there are ſo few canals and good roads, to facilitate travelling and inland trade.

GOVERNMENT.

THE German empire, which, till the year 843, was connected with France, now forms a ſtate by itſelf, or may be conſidered as a combination of upwards of three hundred ſovereignties, independent of each other, but compoſing one political body under an elective head, called the emperor of Germany, or the Roman emperor. Otho the Great, who poſſeſſed ſeveral Italian provinces formerly parts of the weſtern empire, left to his ſucceſſors the title of Roman emperor inſeparably annexed to the kingdom of Germany; and in conſequence of the ancient

ancient reſpect entertained for the Roman name, all the other ſovereigns allow the emperor the firſt rank among the European monarchs. Eight princes of the empire, called electors, have the right of electing the emperor. By a fundamental law, known under the name of the Golden Bull, the number of electors was limited to only ſeven; two new electoral dignities have been added afterwards, one of which is extinct ſince the year 1777. The electors are divided into eccleſiaſtical and temporal: the eccleſiaſtical electors are the following, 1. The archbiſhop of Mentz, great chancellor of the empire, and director of the electoral college. In conſequence of this preſidency, he has the prerogative, on a vacancy of the Imperial throne, to give notice of the death of the emperor to the ſtates of the empire, to convoke the diet during the interregnum, and to proclaim the new-elected ſucceſſor. 2. The archbiſhop of Treves, great chancellor of France and Arelat, a dignity, which, after the ſeparation of France from the empire, is merely nominal. 3. The archbiſhop of Cologne, great chancellor of Italy, a mere title alſo. The temporal electors are, 4. The king

king or elector of Bohemia, cup-bearer of the emperor. 5. The elector of the Palatinate and of Bavaria, great-ſteward. 6. The elector of Saxony, great-marſhal. 7. The elector of Brandenburg, great-chamberlain. 8. The elector of Brunſwic, (Hanover) arch-treaſurer of the empire.

As ſoon as an emperor is elected, he is obliged to confirm by oath the capitulation he has ſigned, and which is propoſed to him by the electors: he engages likewiſe by oath to protect the Roman Catholic religion and the Holy See. It is not abſolutely neceſſary that the emperor ſhould be a Roman Catholic, though hitherto no Proteſtant has yet been ſeated on the Imperial throne. The prerogatives the emperor acquires by his acceſſion to that dignity, and which are called his aſſervata, are chiefly the following: He is the ſupreme lord paramount of the Roman empire, of whom the princes are ſuppoſed to hold their dominions in fee: he has the power of calling together the diet, over which he preſides in perſon, or by his commiſſary, and of ratifying their reſolutions by his confirmation. He is the ſupreme judge, in whoſe name juſtice is adminiſtered

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in the high courts of the empire: he can, however, exempt the ſubordinate ſtates from the juriſdiction of theſe tribunals, by granting them the privilege *de non appellando*. He is the fountain of honour, and has the power of conferring titles of nobility, ſuch as baron, count, prince, duke, &c. he claims the right of eſtabliſhing poſt-offices all over the empire; this right, however, is ſubject to ſome limitations; he grants charters to the univerſities, and confers academical degrees. He is not allowed to raiſe any taxes, nor to begin an offenſive war, or to conclude a peace, nor to alter any law of the empire without the conſent of the diet, which may be conſidered as the ſupreme power of the German empire. The revenues of the emperor are at preſent reduced to a very trifling ſum; they ariſe chiefly from the contributions of ſome Imperial towns, and amount to little more than 20,000 florins. In times of war, or other unuſual emergencies, the diet allows the emperor extraordinary aids or ſupplies, called Roman months, and valued at 50,000 florins each. The diet is compoſed of the emperor and of the immediate ſtates of the empire; the latter are thoſe individuals or

ſocieties

ſocieties which ſhare the ſupreme legiſlative and executive power of the confederation, by the right of voting in this aſſembly. Since the year 1663, the diet, which uſed to aſſemble formerly at unequal intervals of time, has been held, without interruption, to the preſent day. The diet exerciſes all the acts of ſovereignty, as far as they concern the intereſts of the whole confederate political body; it levies taxes, it gives laws, it makes war, and concludes treaties of peace by which the whole empire is bound. It has the power of conferring this right of participation in the government, or of voting at the diet; and can take it away, by way of puniſhment, from ſuch members as have violated the public peace. In conſequence of the difference of religion prevailing in the German empire, the ſtates are divided into the Catholic and Proteſtant bodies (*Corpus Catholicorum & Corpus Evangelicorum*). With reſpect to rank and privilege, they are divided into three colleges: the Electoral college; that of the princes, including the immediate prelates and counts; and the college of the Imperial cities. Each of theſe colleges holds ſeparate deliberations, in which the

the majority of votes decides. That of the electors is under the direction of the elector of Mentz. The college of the princes is ſubdivided into the eccleſiaſtical and temporal bench: on the firſt are ſeated thoſe archbiſhops who are not electors, the grand maſters of the Teutonic order, and of the order of St. John, the archduke of Auſtria, and the duke of Burgundy, the biſhops and the prelates; the latter have no perſonal but two collective votes. The Proteſtant biſhop of Lubeck, and the biſhop of Oſnaburg, when a Proteſtant, have a ſeparate bench to themſelves. On the ſecular bench, the firſt ſeats are held by thoſe princes who are related to the electors; next to them are ſeated the ancient princely families; next, thoſe families, who, in later times, have been raiſed to the princely dignity; and laſt of all, the independent counts of the empire, who have only four collective votes. The votes of the eccleſiaſtical bench amount to 35, thoſe of the temporal to 65. The college of the imperial cities is divided into two benches, that of the circle of the Rhine, and that of the circle of Swabia; the firſt has 14, the laſt 37 votes. Thoſe propoſitions, which are to paſs into a

law of the empire, muſt be agreed to by the three colleges; when this is done, they are called *Reſolutions* of the empire (Reichs-gutachten.) The reſolutions muſt be preſented to the emperor for his confirmation, which he has it in his power to give or to refuſe; when the confirmation is obtained, the reſolutions are called *Acts* or *Statutes* of the empire (Reich-ſchluſſe) and acquire the force of laws. At the concluſion of every diet, a collection of all the acts paſſed during the ſeſſions, called the *Receſs of the Empire* (Receſſus Imperii, or Reichs-abſchiede.)

The fundamental laws, or thoſe which ſettle the conſtitution of the empire, are, A. Such acts of the diet as are of a public nature. The moſt remarkable among them are the following: 1. The golden bull (ſo called on account of the great gold ſeal of the emperor affixed to it); it was publiſhed at the diet of Nurnberg in the year 1356, and in the reign of Charles IV. It ſettles every thing relating to the election and coronation of the emperor, and the rights of the electors. The Latin original is preſerved at Frankfurt on the Maine. 2. The public peace; a collection

lection of regulations for the preſervation of the peace between the members of the empire. It was calculated to put a period to the feudal diſſenſions which harraſſed Germany in the middle ages. This law was promulgated under Maximilian I. in the year 1495. 3. The convention of Paſſau in 1552, and the peace of religion in 1555, by which the Proteſtant religion as well as the Roman Catholic are acknowledged to be eſtabliſhed in the empire. 4. The laſt receſs of the empire of 1654, containing ſeveral public acts, which finally ſettle ſeveral points incompletely arranged in the Weſtphalian peace. B. The capitulation of the emperor, by which the emperor engages himſelf to govern according to the laws of the empire, and under the conditions and reſtrictions impoſed on him by the electors, who have the valuable right to check every ſtretch of imperial power, or to redreſs grievances crept in, by impoſing new conditions at the beginning of a new reign. C. The peace of Weſtphalia, concluded in the year 1649, which ſerves for the baſis of all ſubſequent treaties of peace, and, in a great meaſure, for the foundation of the preſent

political ſyſtem of Europe. This famous act determines likewiſe, with great preciſion, the civil, political, and religious rights of each individual ſtate in Germany.

There are two ſupreme courts of judicature, which have a concurring juriſdiction in the Roman empire: 1. The *Imperial Chamber* (Kammer-gericht) eſtabliſhed in 1495, and kept at preſent at Wetzlar, an Imperial city in the circle of the Upper Rhine. The emperor has the right of nominating the firſt judge and the two preſidents of this court; 27 aſſeſſors or counſellors are nominated by the ſtates of the empire. 2. The *Aulic Council* (Reichs-hoffraht) depending entirely on the emperor, is eſtabliſhed at Vienna, the imperial reſidence. It conſiſts of a preſident and 18 counſellors, and is divided into a noble and a learned bench. Seven of the members of this council are Proteſtants. The judges of the Imperial Chamber receive their ſalaries from the ſtates of the empire, who have appropriated to their maintenance a particular tax (called kammerzieler) which amounts annually to about 90,000 florins. The judges of the Aulic Council are paid by the emperor. In all caſes where the ſtatute

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or fundamental laws of the empire are defective, theſe two courts adopt the regulations of the Roman law, which is in general introduced into the German courts of juſtice, except where it is limited or ſuperſeded by the particular ſtatutes of each ſtate. To both courts appeals may be made from the deciſions of the courts of juſtice, or of the ſovereigns of the German ſtates. In criminal caſes, in matters of religion, and in pecuniary lawſuits, in which the conteſted property does not exceed the ſum of 400 rixdollars, the deciſion of the territorial courts or of the ſovereign is final. In theſe caſes, however, the party who thinks himſelf aggrieved by a ſentence, is allowed to ſubmit the deciſion, given by the judges of his own country, to the examination of the juridical faculty of one or more impartial German univerſities, by which the decree may be confirmed or reverſed. In the dominions of the electors and other princes, who are exempted from appeals to the ſupreme courts of the empire, courts of appeal are eſtabliſhed (Ober-appellations Gericht) in which the decrees of the courts of juſtice, eſpecially in cauſes between the ſove-

reign and the ſubject, may be reviſed, and if exceptionable, may be ſet aſide.

The ſtates of the empire, conſidered in their ſeparate capacity, enjoy ſovereign power in their reſpective dominions, limited only by the laws before-mentioned, and the juriſdiction of the Imperial courts, from which, however, the chief among them are exempted. The conſtitution of the different ſtates is very different; moſt of them are governed by ſingle perſons, as the electorates, principalities, counties, &c. and ſome have a republican form of government, as the Imperial cities. As to the exerciſe of power, the ſovereigns are limited by the ſtates of their countries, who muſt give their conſent to taxes, and to new laws; and who may appeal to the high courts of the empire, or to the courts of appeal within their own country, in caſe of any difference between them and the ſovereign. In extreme caſes, the ſtates may lay their complaints before the diet. This mode of redreſſing grievances, provided by the conſtitution of the German empire, at a time when no ſtanding armies were yet kept, is, it muſt be owned, of little avail in ſtates where military power is

preponderant; yet it is a very effectual check on the tyranny of petty ſovereigns. The electors poſſeſs ſome conſiderable political advantages, beſides the right of electing the emperor; their concurrence and conſent is neceſſary to the emperor, whenever he declares war or concludes treaties; they have a particular confederation among themſelves, called the *Electoral Union*, they claim the honours allowed to kings, and their ambaſſadors in foreign courts are in poſſeſſion of the next rank after thoſe of kings. With regard to foreign countries, each independant German ſovereign has the right of entering into treaties, or engaging in wars with them, provided it does not affect the peace of the whole empire, or of any other ſtate of it. The government of moſt of the Imperial cities is a mixture of Democracy and Ariſtocracy. The beſt governed among them are Hamburg, Lubeck, and Frankfurt; in others, eſpecially in Nurnberg, a rigorous oligarchy prevails.

The power of the two greateſt potentates of Germany, whoſe religious and political intereſts are oppoſite, is at preſent pretty equally balanced. For though Auſtria is

certainly in itſelf ſuperior in ſtrength to Pruſſia, yet the combination of the latter, with the mightieſt princes in Germany, gives it a ſufficient weight to counterbalance that ſuperiority; and it is the intereſt of France to keep up this oppoſition in the empire, rather than to unite with Auſtria, as the predominance of the latter would prove dangerous to that kingdom, whoſe greatneſs is in a great meaſure owing to the diviſions of Germany. It may not be improper to obſerve, that the connections of ſome parts of Germany with foreign countries, under one ſovereign, though they ſeemed to promiſe an acceſſion of power to theſe provinces, have commonly proved diſadvantageous, involving Germany in wars and calamities which would otherwiſe not have reached it. Thus, for inſtance, the connection of Hungary with Auſtria has been the cauſe of ſeveral bloody wars with the Turks; that of Poland with Saxony, and that of England with Hanover, have proved no leſs prejudicial to Germany, than to the countries thus united with it.

ARMY

ARMY OF THE EMPIRE.

THERE is, properly ſpeaking, no ſtanding army of the empire; but in time of war the ſtates of the empire muſt furniſh their reſpective quotas of ſoldiers, according to an agreement made in the year 1681. At preſent the army of the empire, when complete, muſt amount to 28,000 infantry and 12,000 cavalry. The quotas for the different circles are regulated as follows:

	Infantry.	Cavalry.
Circle of Auſtria —	5507	2521
—— Burgundy —	2707	1321
—— Bavaria —	1494	800
—— Franconia —	1902	980
—— Swabia —	2707	1321
—— Lower Rhine	2707	600
—— Upper Rhine	2853	491
—— Weſtphalia —	2707	1321
—— Upper Saxony	2707	1321.
—— Lower Saxony	2707	1321
Total	27,998	11,997 B.

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In caſe 1½ million of florins ſhould be neceſſary to be raiſed for the war and for the army of the empire, the ſhares of this ſum ſtand thus:

	Florins.	Kreutzer.
Circle of Auſtria —	306,390	20
——— Burgundy —	156,360	15
——— Bavaria —	91,261	5
——— Franconia —	113,481	25
——— Swabia —	156,360	15
——— Lower Rhine	105,654	5
——— Upper Rhine	101,411	30
——— Weſtphalia —	156,360	15
——— Upper Saxony	156,360	15
——— Lower Saxony	156,360	15
Total	1,499,999	40

RELI-

RELIGION.

SINCE the year 1555, the three following denominations of Chriſtians are the eſtabliſhed religions of the empire: the Roman Catholic, the Lutheran, and Calviniſt, generally called the reformed religion. The firſt prevails in the South of Germany, the Lutheran in the North, and the reformed near the Rhine. In the ſubſequent civil wars, of which religious bigotry was the principal cauſe, the rights of theſe rival religions, as eſtabliſhed by the religious peace of 1555, had undergone great alterations whenever the provinces had changed maſters; and the confuſion ariſing from the claims of the oppreſſed parties, and from the encroachments of the victorious, was become extreme. It was at length ſettled by the peace of Weſtphalia, that the religion of the different ſtates ſhould remain as it had been in the year 1624, which is, on that account, called the definitive year, *Annus normalis*. According to this agreement, the ſovereign is obliged to leave each of theſe religions, eſtabliſhed, or tolerated, or excluded,

cluded, as they were at that period; yet the right of correcting abuſes in the public worſhip, was reſerved to him. The Jews are tolerated throughout the empire. There are likewiſe in the empire ſectaries of all the denominations mentioned under the article of the European religions. The Roman Catholic church acknowledges the ſupremacy of the pope; and in conſequence of an agreement between the Germanic church and the Holy See, the latter acquired the right of confirming all the prelates of the empire. Their ſuperior clergy conſiſts of eight archbiſhops, forty biſhops, and many abbots; ſome of whom, as well as moſt of the archbiſhops and biſhops, are ſovereign princes. There is a very great number of Roman Catholic convents, and ſeveral commanderies of the knights of the Teutonic Order, as well as of the Order of St. John. The grand maſters of theſe Orders muſt be Roman Catholic noblemen; the reſidence of the firſt is Mergentheim, in Franconia; that of the latter is Heiterſheim, in the circle of the Upper Rhine.

The Proteſtant clergy is governed by aſſemblies, called Conſiſtories, under the controul of

of the ſovereign of each ſtate. It is compoſed of ſuperintendents-general, who are commonly members of the Conſiſtory, ſuperintendents or inſpectors, and miniſters of the pariſhes. All the Roman Catholics, or the Corpus Catholicorum, is under the direction of the elector of Mentz; the Corpus Evangelicorum, or the Proteſtants, under the direction of the elector of Saxony. Theſe directors manage the concerns of religion at the diet. To balance the rights and influence of the Catholics and Proteſtants, of which the former have a majority of votes on the diet, the ſtates of either party have the right of ſeceſſion (jus eundi in partes). In conſequence of this right, the Proteſtants or Catholics, if they are afraid that their intereſts, as a body, might be affected by a majority of votes, may come to a ſeparate reſolution, agreed upon amongſt themſelves, which cannot be annihilated by the ordinary manner of voting; and by this means they can defeat any attack upon their religious and political rights.

GENE-

GENERAL REMARKS.

THE German empire, when conſidered as one ſingle power or ſtate, at the head of which the emperor ſtands, is of no great political conſequence in Europe, becauſe, from the inequality and weak connection of its parts, and the different nature of their government, from the inſignificancy of its ill-compoſed army, and above all, from the different views and intereſts of its maſters, it is next to impoſſible that its force ſhould be united, compact, and uniform. There are, however, in this empire two potentates entitled to rank among the firſt deciding powers of Europe: and the military power of Germany, in ſome ſenſe, is ſuperior to that of any European country. The number of ſoldiers in the ſervice of all the German princes amount to 500,000, even after deducting from the Pruſſian army 45,000 men for the provinces not belonging to the German empire, and 76,000 men of the Auſtrian army, for the kingdom of Hungary and the Italian dominions of Auſtria. The actual revenues of the German ſtates (excluſive

(excluſive of the kingdom of Pruſſia, and the Auſtrian dominions not belonging to Germany) amount annually to near 100 millions of dollars, or near 18,000,000l. ſterling. Conſidering the cheapneſs of victuals and labour in moſt parts of Germany, this ſum is really aſtoniſhing; yet the effects of ſo much national wealth is much leſs perceptible, than it would be in France or England, where a large metropolis would collect it, as it were, into a focus, and aſſiſt its circulation throughout the provinces. Germany however has, nor can have, properly ſpeaking, a capital, while it is divided among ſo great a number of ſovereigns.

The Germans can boaſt of a greater number of uſeful diſcoveries and inventions in arts and ſciences, than any other European nation. It would be eaſy to enumerate nearly one hundred of them, without filling up the liſt with mere improvements in machines and mechanical arts. Improvements of this ſort are greatly facilitated by a concurrence of favourable circumſtances, ſuch as an advantageous ſituation for commerce, long and uninterrupted peace, great and eaſy influx of wealth, and the concomitant increaſe

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of luxury. An open and extenſive market for the productions of manufacturing induſtry, and the frequent calls of luxury for gratifications of new-imagined wants, multiply the arts; the latter aſſiſt each other in perfecting their reſpective inſtruments, and afford many opportunities for ingenious combinations of mechaniſm. In a country, whoſe commerce is confined by natural and political limits, where the reward of genius and induſtry is not always opulence and ſplendour, the national character ſhares with chance alone the claim to a number of important inventions, ſome of which have been productive of the principal revolutions of modern life. Literature and the ſciences are arrived in Germany at a very high degree of eminence, both with reſpect to univerſality and ſolidity. Within theſe fifty years their improvements have been rapid and aſtoniſhing. The German language has been greatly cultivated and enriched with many excellent compoſitions in all branches of polite and uſeful literature, which have been marked with the applauſe, and tranſlated into the languages of neighbouring nations. Many branches of uſeful knowledge, hitherto con-

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fined to particular classes of men, and difficult to be acquired, have been reduced to a scientific form in Germany; they form indispensible parts of polite education, and are publicly taught in the universities. The theory of trades and mechanical arts, the principles of private and public œconomy, of internal administration, and the science of finances; the knowledge of the political situation, resources and wealth of every state, have been added to the established list of academical sciences, and they employ the talents of a great number of writers, under the name of Technology, Oeconomy, Science of Finances, and Statistic.

Many other sciences have undergone considerable changes. Their principles have been more thoroughly investigated, their proper limits assigned; they have received great improvements with respect to methodical arrangement and practical utility. The science of education has experienced a total and most advantageous revolution. In no other country this important science is so universally and so successfully attended to; nor can any country boast of so many institutions of education. Upwards of 50

writers, poſſeſſed of laudable zeal and great abilities, aſſiſted by practical experience, and encouraged by ſome of the wiſeſt and moſt patriotic ſovereigns, have for ſome years paſt applied their talents entirely to the improvement of the method of inſtructing, and to the eſtabliſhing of inſtitutions, calculated to promote the happineſs of future generations. The beneficial labours of theſe men extend to the loweſt ranks of ſociety. Several country-ſchools are eſtabliſhed, in which this numerous and valuable claſs of people are inſtructed in religion, in the duties of their ſtation, and the proper uſe of their reaſon; and where they are brought up in habits of induſtry, which attach them to their ſituation in life. The great plan theſe friends of mankind purſue, is to render education, ſo long neglected by ſtateſmen, an eſſential part of internal politics. They inculcate the neceſſity of beſtowing no leſs pains on the formation of active habits, the early impreſſion of religious and moral principles, the developement of the bodily and mental powers, by the eaſieſt and moſt natural ſteps, the preſervation of the health of young people,

than

than on their progreſs in claſſical and ſcientifical knowledge.

The progreſs of the Germans in natural philoſophy and mathematics is better known abroad, than their progreſs in metaphyſics and divinity, which has, at leaſt, kept pace with the former. The general taſte for literature and ſcientific enquiry, which is the bent the genius and the induſtry of the nation has taken, in conſequence of the ſingular political conſtitution, has diffuſed a vaſt maſs of knowledge through Germany, eſpecially through its northern parts. In theſe provinces the number of literati is exceedingly great; they may be ſaid to form a particular republic of letters, diſtinguiſhed by liberality of manners, by a conſiderable degree of independence, and a very perceptible influence on the government of the ſtates, by the direction of the public opinion. The number of readers in the German empire, and in the neighbouring countries, eſpecially in the north of Europe, where the German language has an extenſive circulation, is large enough to encourage the publication of no leſs than 5000 annual literary productions, of which two-thirds are original per-

formances, and one-third tranſlations from other languages. It is true, this rage of writing and of reading has ſome diſadvantages; among which, the publication of a great number of wretched books is one of the moſt conſpicuous. Yet theſe are either calculated for a particular public, or they are ſoon buried in the oblivion they deſerve; while, on the other ſide, the beneficial conſequences reſulting from this univerſal application to literature are greatly preponderant. Beſides the obvious advantages of deſtroying ignorance and prejudice, of ſpreading liberality of ſentiment, it keeps up the connection, otherwiſe not ſufficiently binding, between the different parts of the empire, it excites a ſpirit of emulation, it inſpires a ſalutary dread to ſovereigns to commit ſuch actions as might draw public cenſure upon them, it acquaints the different claſſes of men with their rights, and gives energy to the voice and the complaints of the public. The ſciences in Germany appear in no unimportant point of view, when conſidered as the means of affording a comfortable ſubſiſtence to an aſtoniſhing number of people employed in teaching, or in writing

on

on the ſciences, and to many thouſands of paper-manufacturers, printers, and book-ſellers. The book-trade is no where equally important; at the Leipzick fair books are ſold and exchanged to the value of ſeveral hundred thouſand dollars.

There are 38 univerſities in Germany, of which 19 belong to the Proteſtants, and 17 to the Roman Catholics; though the latter ought to have many more, conſidering the proportion of their numbers to thoſe of the Proteſtants, which is as two to one. Of all the German inſtitutions of education, the univerſities are ſtill the moſt faulty, conſidering the wants of our age; yet moſt of the Proteſtant univerſities in Germany are the leaſt exceptionable inſtitutions of that kind in Europe. The number of literary and ſcientifical ſocieties, public libraries, academies of arts, collections of pictures, military academies, &c. is greater in Germany than in any other country.

TABLE VII.

PRUSSIA.

AUTHORITIES.

1. *HANDBUCH der Geſchichte der Preuſſiſchen Staaten.* Manual of the Hiſtory and Geog. of the Pruſſian Dominions, by M. Batzko, 1784. (German.)
2. *Bemerkungen eines Reiſenden durch die Pr. Staaten.* Obſervations on the Pruſſian States, by a Traveller, 2 vols.
3. *Naturgeſchichte von Oſt und Weſt Preuſſen.* Natural Hiſt. of Eaſt and Weſt Pruſſia. Berlin, 1783.
4. *Count Hertzberg* on the Population of States, eſpecially the Pruſſian State; and by the ſame, On the Riches of States and the Balance of Power, tranſlated. Lond. 1786. 8vo.
5. *Lehrbegrif der Cameral und Polizeyrechte in Deutſchland.* Inſtitutions of the Laws of the Revenue and Police in Germany, eſpecially

especially in the Pruſſian States, by M. Fiſcher, 1785.

6. Memoire ſur les Produits du Regne Animal de la Monarchie Pruſſienne, par M. de Heynitz. Berlin, 1786.

7. *Beſchriebung des Preuſſiſchen Pomern.* Account of the Pruſſian Pomerania, by M. Brugman, 1769.

8. *Beſchreibung der Chur Brandenburg.* Account of the Electorate of Brandenburg, by M. Beckman, 1750.

9. Topography of Pruſſia, by M. Goldbeck, 1785. (German.)

TABLE VII. MONARCHY OF PRUSSIA.

As the Countries belonging to this Monarchy are scattered, and without any natural Connection, one cannot ascertain entirely their — — The latitude of Prussia goes to 55° lat.	Square Miles.	Population.	Popular. for every squ. mile.	Chief Towns and Number of Inhabitants.
DIVISIONS.				570 Towns.
A. Countries which are independent of the German Empire — — — — —	57,600 but in mother pl. e Mr. Hertzberg reckons 64,000	6,000,000	104	Capital. Berlin — 145,136
B. Countries which are dependent — —		6,400,000	100	
A.				
1. Kingdom of Prussia, viz. — —	22,144	1,500,000	68	Towns 69—Villages 1,260
East Prussia — — — —	12,043	940,000	78	Königsberg — 54,000 Memel — 5,765
West Prussia — — — —	10,099	560,000	55	(44 Towns.) Elbing — 14,400 Graudenz — 5,200
2. Duchies of Silesia and Glatz — —	10,240	1,582,000	154	(161 Towns.) Breslau — 51,000 Glatz — 4,250 Brig — 5,000 Schweidnitz 6,250 Liegnitz — 4,810
3. Principalities of Neufchatel and Vallengin —	246	40,500	169	(3 Towns.) Neufchatel — 6,000

TABLE VII. CONTINUED.

Divisions.	Square Miles.	Population.	Popul. for every squ. mile	Chief Towns and Number of Inhabitants.
B.				
1. The March of Brandenburg, viz. — —	10,62[illegible]	1,057,000	99	
a. The Electoral March — — —	[illegible]	795,000	112	Berlin, 6500 houses Potsdam — 20,000 Spandau — 3,800 Brandenburg 9,200 Frankfort on the Oder 10,000 Salzwedel — 4,[illegible]0 Stendal — 4,300
b. The New March — — —	3,320	262,000	74	Cüstrin — 4,400 Landsberg — [illegible],000
2. Duchy of Pomerania — — —	3[illegible]12	465,000	132	(39 Towns.) Stettin — 15,485 Colberg — 4,[illegible]90 Anklam — 3,185
3. Duchy of Magdeburg — — —	1564	280,000	168	Magdeburg 26,309 and 10,000 G. Halle — 15,202 and 5,000 G.
4. Principality of Halberstadt — — —	672	132,000	196	Halberstadt 11,200 M.
5. The Possess. in Westphalia, viz. — —	3,904	590,000	151	

TABLE VII. CONTINUED.

Divisions.	Square Miles.	Population.	Populat. for every squ. mile.	Chief Towns and Number of Inhabitants.
1. Duchy of Minden and County of Ravensberg	816	130,000	159	(6 Towns.) Minden — 5,178 Bielefeld — 2,900
2. Counties of Fecklenburg and Lingen —	208	45,000	216	(4 Towns.) Fecklenburg — Lingen — 1,800
3. Principality of Oſtfrieſland or Friſia — —	864	103,000	119	(4 Towns.) Emden — 7,900 M.
4. Duchy of Cleve — — —	640	95,000	149	(24 Towns.) Cleve — 5,300 Weſel — 4,600 Duiſburg —
5. County of Mark — — —	896	125,000	140	Soeſt — 5,020 Lippſtadt — Iſerlohe — 5,000
6. Principal. of Moeurs — — —	96	17,000	177	Moeurs — Crefeld — 5,800
7. Duchy of Gueldern — — —	384	50,000	130	Gueldern —

WEALTH AND COMMERCE.

THE different provinces of the Pruſſian monarchy are by no means equal to one another with reſpect to fertility and the articles of their produce. The kingdom of Pruſſia, being the moſt northern part of the monarchy, is rich in corn, timber, manna-graſs, flax and peltry of all ſorts, and exports theſe articles. Amber is exported annually, to the value of 20,000 dollars. Pruſſia wants ſalt, and has no metals but iron. The profits of its fiſheries are conſiderable. (See Bock's Natural Hiſtory of Pruſſia). Sileſia has ſilver, lead, tin, and iron; but its mines are ſtill in an infant ſtate: it has likewiſe a great plenty of pit-coal, different ſorts of ſalt, precious ſtones, and quarries of excellent free-ſtone. The ſheep and goats of this province are remarkably good. Of vegetables it produces large quantities of madder, ſome tobacco, wine, and corn ſufficient for the conſumption of this province. The Marche of Brandenburg has excellent ſheep, timber, flax, ſilk, ſaltpetre, allum, and a very fine

ſort

ſort of clay, uſed in the china manufacture. Pomerania exports timber, cattle, and corn. (See Brugman's Deſcription of Pomerania.) Halberſtadt and Magdeburg are remarkable for corn and ſilk, and Weſtphalia for corn and minerals *. The provinces of Weſtphalia have iron, calamine, pit-coal, and ſome lead and copper (Heinitz). The induſtry of the Pruſſian nation, encouraged chiefly by the late king, the wonder of our age, is at preſent ſo great, that not only 1,200 veſſels, and 12,000 ſeamen are employed, in the maritime provinces, where trade was formerly at a very low ebb, no more than 500 fiſhermen being employed in the herring fiſhery, but that the produce of the mines is made to amount to 1,300,000 dollars, and gives bread to 90,000 families. The ſum accruing to the king from the mines amounts to 800,000 dollars, and the profits of private proprietors to 500,000 dollars. Before the commencement of the late reign, Pruſſia, (according to Count Herzberg) had but a few ſilk manufactures:

* De Heinitz Memoire ſur les Produits du Regne Mineral de la Monarchie Pruſſienne. Berlin, 1786, 4to.

at

at present they employ upwards of 5,000 hands; and the value of goods manufactured, amounts to 2,000,000 dollars annually, one fourth of which is exported. Of 70,000 lb. of raw silk, required for this manufacture, 13,432 lb. are produced in the Prussian dominions. Large water-mills are erected for spinning silk, wool and thread. The articles supplied by these mills are of very great commercial consequence. Prussia exports linen, to the value of 6 millions of dollars, chiefly to Spain and Italy, and woollens to the value of 4 millions, some of which finds its way even to China, through Russia. Eastern Prussia exports, annually, 100,000 stein of flax, 10,000 stein of hemp, besides some thousand tons of flax and hemp-seed. West Prussia exports linen thread to the value of 500,000 dollars, and 49,000 stein of flax. (See Bock's Nat. Hist.) The iron works and founderies of the county of Mark bring into circulation about one million of dollars. These articles added to the timber and corn of Brandenburg and Pomerania, each of which articles is exported to the value of one million of dollars: to the flax and timber of Prussia, and to the important Polish trade

carried

carried on by the way of Koenigſberg, Memel, Elbing, Dantzick, and Stettin, turn the balance of trade conſiderably in favour of the Pruſſian dominions. There are in all about 123,000 hands employed in the manufactures of cloth, ſilk, linen, leather, &c. The manufacture of porcelaine employs 5,000 people. The cotton manufacture, with reſpect to the fineneſs and beauty of its goods, is one of the beſt in Europe. Beſides the above, there are many manufactures of glaſs, white lead, hard-ware, vitriol, allum, paper, ſugar, tobacco, &c. The number of people working in the principal manufactures of Pruſſia, is upwards of 165,000, and the produce of their induſtry is eſtimated at upwards of 30 millions of dollars. The minor manufactures of ſtarch, allum, vinegar, bleached wax, tobacco pipes, arms, tapeſtry, gloves, are not included in this calculation, yet they produce many millions of dollars. At Embden an Eaſt-India Company has been eſtabliſhed with tolerable ſucceſs.

ARMY.

ARMY.

In 1783, 224,431 men, (Milit. Bibl.) viz.

	Infantry.	Cavalry.
In the March	46,488	4,187
In Pruſſia	33,947	12,229
In Pomerania	12,670	8,430
In Magdeburg	16,907	3,790
In Weſtphalia	13,990	
In Sileſia	40,168	13,860

(1785) 192,377. See Zuſtand der Preuſs. Armee, 1785.

At Berlin there is an Ecole Militaire, and a ſchool for cadets; each regiment has its court of juſtice.

FINANCES.

Upwards of 22 millions of dollars.

According to Buſching only 21 millions,

From the Electorate or March of Brandenburg	—	6 ½ millions
From Pruſſia	—	4 ½
From Pomerania	—	2

From Magdeburg and Halberſtadt — —	2	millions
From Weſtphalia —	2	
From Sileſia — —	6	
	23	Stat. Ueb.

According to BUSCHING.

Pomerania —	2,000,000
Pruſſia —	4,000,000
Sileſia —	4,500,000
March of Brandenburg	3,300,000
Magdeburg —	1,400,000
Halberſtadt —	500,000
Cleve, Mark, and Moeurs	1,000,000
Minden and Ravenſberg	900,000
Oſtfrieſland —	900,000
	18,500,000

GENERAL REMARKS.

THE preſent flouriſhing ſtate of Pruſſia, a country by no means remarkable for its natural riches, is an aſtoniſhing proof of what a ſingle great man is able to effect, who unites

unites extraordinary ſtrength of genius with laborious and perſevering activity. This monarchy reſembles a very complicated machine, which, by its ingenious and admirable conſtruction, produces the greateſt effects with the greateſt eaſe, but in which the yielding of a wheel, or the relaxation of a ſpring, will put a ſtop to the motion of the whole. The united effects of flouriſhing finances, of prudent œconomy, of accuracy and diſpatch in every branch of adminiſtration, and of a formidable military ſtrength, have given to this ſtate ſuch a conſequence, that the tranquillity and ſecurity, not only of Germany, but of all Europe, depend in a great meaſure on the politics of the Pruſſian cabinet. The adminiſtration of juſtice is likewiſe admirably ſimplified and executed with unparalleled quickneſs. Upon the whole, the reign of Frederick the Great may, indeed, be conſidered as the moſt ſpecious argument in favour of monarchical government. Improvements have been made in one ſingle reign, which, in a country where the governing powers are leſs united and more limited, would have required ſeveral ages and the moſt favourable circumſtances. Difference

of religion in a ſtate, is commonly the cauſe of many diſturbances: under the late king, all profeſſions of faith lived peaceably together, becauſe the eſtabliſhed religion, which is the reformed, had no power to oppreſs thoſe of a different perſuaſion. Roman Catholics and Jews are very numerous in the Pruſſian dominions; they enjoy the moſt perfect freedom in the exerciſe of their religion.

The progreſs of arts and ſciences, and eſpecially elegant literature, have made during the reign of this great man, is very conſiderable. It is no more than about 40 years ago, that the Germans, though great proficients in every branch of ſcientific knowledge, paid proper attention to the refinement of their taſte, and the cultivation of their language. Yet ſuch is the application peculiar to the Germans, and ſo well were they prepared for every ſpecies of compoſition, by their intimate acquaintance with the beſt ancient and modern writers of all nations, that having once laid aſide the faſhion of writing in Latin, they were able to enumerate in a ſhort period many excellent poets and elegant writers in their native language. This

is

is the more to be wondered at, as the late king of Pruſſia, greatly neglected in his education, and afterwards conſtantly ſurrounded by foreigners, was unacquainted with, and indifferent to the energy and copiouſneſs of his own language, and to the progreſs his countrymen made in taſte and compoſition. He had, however, the merit of encouraging the ſciences and ſome branches of literature; and ſuch is the connection between the different branches, that if ſome of them are patronized by great and powerful men, all the other branches will partake of the animating influence.

TABLE VIII.

AUSTRIAN MONARCHY.

AUTHORITIES.

1. *STATISTISCHE Beſchreib. der Oeſtreichiſchen Niederlande.* Political Account of the Auſtrian Netherlands, by Mr. Crome, 1785 (German.)
2. *Briefe uber die Handlung von Ungarn.* Letters on the Commerce and Navigation of Hungary & Slavonia, at Prague, 1783 (German.)
3. *Vom Commerz der Oeſtreichiſchen Staaten.* Eſſay on the Commerce of the Auſtrian Monarchy, by Mr. Schweighofer. Vienna, 1781 (German.)
4. *Geog. Beſchreibung von Ungarn,* &c. Geographical Account of Hungary, by Mr. Windiſh, 1780 (German.)
5. Travels by Mr. Gercke, 1785 (German.)
6. *Phyſicaliſche Erdbeſchreibung von Krain.* Natural Geography of Carniola. Leipz. 1778, (German.)

7. *Abriſs*

7. *Abriſs der Phyſicaliſchen Beſchaffenheit der Oeſterreichſchen Staaten.* Account of the Natural Productions of the Auſtrian States, by Mr. Hermen, 1784 (Germ.)
8. *Hiſtor. & Geogr. Beſchreibung von Slavonien.* Hiſtorical and Geographical Account of the Kingdom of Sclavonia and the adjoining Provinces, by M. de Taube, 1777 (German.)
9. *Geſchichte des Tranſalpiniſchen Daciens.* The Hiſtory of Tranſalpine Dacia, by Mr. Sulzer. Vienna, 1781, 8vo.
10. *Staats Anzeigen.* Political Intelligence, by M. de Luca, a Periodical Paper. (German.)
11. *Trieſter Weltcorreſpondent.* The Univerſal Correſpondent of Trieſte, a Periodical Paper.

TABLE VIII. AUSTRIAN MONARCHY.

Division of all the Austrian dominions	Area in square miles	Population.	Population for each single square mile.	CHIEF TOWNS. Names.	Number of inhabitants.
	1[illegible]46	[illegible]	111 / 109 St. T.	Vienna — — —	2[illegible]6,[illegible]
				Linz — — —	15,2[illegible]
				Gratz — — —	35,[illegible]
				Clagenfurt — —	7[illegible]
				Laubach — —	9[illegible]
				Forda — —	1[illegible]
				[illegible] — —	900
A. Countries belonging to the German empire.					
1. Circle of Austria — —	[illegible]432	[illegible] —	122 (B)		
2. Kingdom of Bohemia — —	1[illegible]370	2,6[illegible]000 —	14 —	Prague on the Moldau Ger.	80,000
3. [illegible] — —	[illegible]	[illegible] —	179 —	[illegible] — —	11,[illegible]
				[illegible] — —	1[illegible],[illegible]
4. [illegible] — —	[illegible]	[illegible] —	15[illegible] —	[illegible] — —	8,[illegible]
5. Austrian Netherlands — —	5[illegible]	[illegible] —	[illegible]52 —	[illegible] — —	8,000
				[illegible] — —	40,[illegible]
				[illegible] — —	4,[illegible]
				[illegible] — —	2[illegible],[illegible]
				[illegible] — —	4,[illegible]
				[illegible] — —	1,[illegible]
				[illegible] — —	1,[illegible]
				[illegible] — —	20,000
				[illegible] — —	[illegible]
				[illegible] — —	[illegible]

TABLE VIII. Continued.

B. Countries independent of the German empire.	Area in square miles.	Population.	Capital tax or land-tax.	CHIEF TOWNS.	
				Names.	Numb. of inhabitants.
1. Lombardia (Italy) — —	3072	1,324,000	431	Milan — —	132,000
				Pavia — —	27,600
				Cremona — —	25,000
				Mantua — —	23,000
2. Hungary — —	52,537	3,160,000	53	Ofen — —	21,000
				Presburg — —	27,000
				Debrecen — —	11,000
				Hermanstadt — —	15,000
				Pest — —	15,000
				Cherwitz — —	8,000
				Eytau — —	7,000
3. Illyria — —	12,600	600,000	49	Nauffaut, Petervaradein	
4. Transylvania — —	16,500	1,200,000	74	Hermanstadt — —	15,000
				Kronstadt	
5. Bukowina — —	2200	100,000	46	Czernowitz, Suczawa	
6. Galicia and Lodomiria — —	27,000	2,200,000	136	Lemberg — —	20,000
				Brody — —	15,000

WEALTH AND COMMERCE.

THE provinces of the Auſtrian monarchy are not only favourably ſituated as to climate, but they may be reckoned among the moſt fertile in Europe. There is ſcarce any valuable product which is not to be met with in them. Bohemia produces and exports flax, wool, hides, ſkins, hops, iron, ſteel, tin, cobalt, vitriol, brimſtone, allum, garnets, and other precious ſtones; it imports ſalt, wine, ſilk, cotton, ſpices, &c. upon the whole, the value of exports exceeds that of the imports by two millions of florins. Sileſia exports large quantities of linen, and Moravia has a great number of manufactures of all ſorts, chiefly of cloth, the produce of which amounts to the value of 13 millions of florins. Auſtria is certainly one of the moſt fertile provinces of Germany. The lower diviſion of it produces upwards of 60,000 cwt. of ſalt, value 4½ millions of florins, the expences of the works not exceeding one million. The ſaffron of this province is remarkably good.

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The woollen manufacture at Lintz is very conſiderable, and employs upwards of 25,000 people. There are beſides many other manufactures, viz. of glaſs, of hardware, &c. The art of making iron-wire is carried to ſuch a degree of perfection, that 6130 fiſh-hooks, worth 26 florins, are made of half an ounce of metal. Auſtria produces 2,000,000 eymers of wine, of which a great part is exported. The exports of Lower Auſtria to the Levant, are computed at ſix millions; but the imports, conſiſting of the articles of cotton, goats or camel hair, ſpices and coffee, at nine millions. The diſtrict comprehending the provinces of Stiria, Carinthia, and Carniola, called by the German geographers Interior Auſtria, is famous for its minerals. Beſides ſome gold, upwards of 1000 lb. of ſilver, 300,000 lb. of quickſilver, one million cwt. of iron, 150,000 cwt. of ſalt, 1500 cwt. of ſalt-petre, and great quantities of lead, copper, vitriol, cobalt, brimſtone, are the produce of theſe rich mines. In Carniola the linen manufactures produce to the value of 400,000 florins of that article. The center of the Auſtrian trade is the harbour of Trieſte, declared a free port by the

preſent

preſent emperor, who is deſirous to eſtabliſh there an Eaſt-India company. Here is the market to which all the European nations reſort for the productions of the Auſtrian dominions. The province of Tyrol has alſo rich mines; it produces wine, and has manufactures of glaſs, leather, and ſilk. Lombardy, the population of which is prodigious, produces vaſt quantities of ſilk, to the amount of 4,500,000 florins. It exports alſo corn and rice for [illegible], hops for 200,000, cattle and horſes for [illegible]. All the various articles of produce, collected through the other provinces, are finally united, and in a [illegible] portion, in the kingdom of Hungary, which, if it was not too thinly peopled, would be the richeſt country of Europe. It produces annually 25,000 lb. of ſilver, containing gold. In 1779, the mines of Schemnitz and Cremnitz yielded 1215 lb. of gold. The gold-waſh of the Bannat yields upwards of 1000 ducats. It is ſuppoſed, that Hungary and Tranſylvania together produce gold and ſilver to the value of 7,000,000 florins annually, 34,000 cwt. of copper, beſides iron, quickſilver, ſalt, and marble. The value of the mines of the

Auſtrian

Auſtrian monarchy is computed to amount to 19,000,000 florins. It is well known that Hungary produces an incredible quantity of excellent wines, the moſt delicious of which is the famous Tokay. If ſeveral ſorts of the Hungarian wines could be longer kept, and if the duties on them, and the expences of carriage were not ſo very high, the riches accruing from them to this country would be immenſe. Among the other valuable productions of Hungary, we ſhall mention hemp, flax, and even cotton, barilla, rice, and tobacco. In 1779, there were exported from Trieſte 109,759 lb. of ſnuff, and upwards of 3,000,000 lb. of tobacco in leaves, excluſive of 2,500,000 lb. exported from Fiume and Buhary. This province, rich in every reſpect, ſells every year 150,000 head of live cattle, and 40,000 hogs. Gallicia, beſides abounding in other minerals, is famous for its immenſe ſalt-works at Wielitzka. This mine of ſalt-rock has been worked theſe 600 years paſt; it extends, according to Mr. Coxe, about 669 feet in length, 1115 in breadth, and 743 in depth. It yielded to the crown of Poland, to which it belonged till 1773, a revenue of three millions

lions and a half of Poliſh florins annually; it has been ceded to the emperor by the late treaty of partition. The quantity of ſalt dug out every year amounted ſome years ago to 700,000 cwt. The ſalt-works of Sambor and Bochnia are alſo very rich, they yield ſalt to the value of one million of florins. The few preceding facts ſhew clearly the value of theſe provinces. When population ſhall be increaſed and manufactures eſtabliſhed, in proportion to the natural riches of the country, the wealth of the Auſtrian monarchy promiſes to be ſuperior to that of any nation in Europe. At preſent there is a great want of navigable canals and other conveniences for inland commerce. Many of the ſpontaneous productions are not ſufficiently attended to, as for inſtance, Oil. The Auſtrian Netherlands have been long famous for their fiſheries, corn, madder, and flax of a ſuperior fineneſs, of which the Brabant lace is made, which brings a good deal of money into the country.

FINANCES.

One hundred and eleven millions of florins (St. T.); according to Schloezer only 84½ millions; above 90 millions, exclusive of the revenues of Galicia, Lodomiria, and Buckawina *. B. viz.

Of Bohemia ——	15,736,069
— Silesia ——	557,209
— Austria ——	23,014,276
— Moravia ——	5,793,120
— Stiria —— ——	5,889,221
— Carintia ——	2,386,884
— Carniola ——	2,089,952
— Friaul —— ——	357,368
— Tyrol ——	3,658,712
— Austria Interior ——	2,876,177
— Hungary ——	18,004,753
— Transylvania ——	3,941,707

* Schloezer gives a different account: the circle of Austria for instance, produces, according to him, some millions less, but the Netherlands almost three millions more. The truest statement seems to be that which estimates the revenues at between 90 and 100 millions of florins. Some authors make them amount even to 115 millions, which is, no doubt, greatly exaggerated. B.

Of

Of Lombardia	——	2,909,171	
— Netherlands	——	3,184,135	
— Illyria	——	1,000,000	Schlocz.
— Buckowina	—	300,000	
— Gallicia and Lodomiria	——	12,000,000	

The debts of the Auſtrian monarchy amount to about 200 millions of florins. In 1770, the public expenditure amounted to 83' millions, and was exceeded by the revenue by upwards of ſix millions remaining in the treaſury.

ARMY.

Two hundred eighty-two thouſand men, according to the new regulation of 1779. The infantry conſiſts of 37 regiments, of 3120 men each, or in all 177,840 men.

Grenadiers	——	13,182
Cavalry	——	44,100
Artillery	——	11,000

Croates

Croates Wallachian Sclavonian troops	}	— 40,000	
Pontoniers	———	600	
Mineurs	———	640	
Sappeurs	———	280	
Tchaikiſts	———	1200	
Engineers	———	200	St. T.

There are beſides the general, ſtaff, or field engineers, &c.

According to others 300,000 men (in 1783).

Another ſtatement.

Infantry	———	170,000	
Cavalry	——	50,000	
Garriſons and other corps		60,000	
		280,000	St. Ueb.

There is at Wienerifh Neuſtadt a famous military academy for 400 cadets; at Vienna an academy of engineers, and each regiment has a ſchool, in which forty ſons of ſoldiers are educated.

GENE-

GENERAL REMARKS.

THE Auſtrian monarchy wants nothing but a long peace to increaſe in population and induſtry. In both reſpects the country has already gained much by the wiſdom of the preſent emperor, who removed one of the greateſt obſtacles to internal improvement, religious intolerance. The Roman Catholic religion is the eſtabliſhed religion of the monarchy: there are, however, at leaſt 80,000 Proteſtants in the provinces belonging to the German empire. In Hungary the number of Proteſtants is ſo great, that ſince the act of toleration has been publiſhed, no leſs than 200 churches have been allowed to them. There are beſides many thouſand Grecks, 223,000 Jews, and about 50,000 Egyptians or Gypſies, in the Auſtrian dominions. At the beginning of the preſent reign, there were upwards of 2000 convents of monks and nuns, which are now wiſely reduced to 1143. The arts and ſciences, hitherto greatly neglected, begin to make conſiderable progreſs. The emperor has appropriated the greateſt part of the revenues,

ariſin

ariſing from the eſtates of the ſeculariſed convents, to the improvement of the ſchools, and the encouragement of literary merit. The univerſities of the Auſtrian dominions are not yet equal to thoſe of the Proteſtant countries of Germany; they are ſix in number, at Vienna, Prague, Peſt, Lemberg, Louvain, and Freybourg, in Briſgau. The government is, in certain reſpects, ſtrictly monarchical; however, in the provinces of Hungary, Illyria, Tranſylvania, Tyrol, and the Netherlands, the ſtates have preſerved ſo much of their ancient conſequence, as to prevent new taxes from being impoſed on thoſe provinces without their conſent. The cities of Bruſſels and Milan are the ſeats of the two viceroys, or governor-generals of the Netherlands and the Italian provinces. Joſeph II. has rendered an eſſential ſervice to humanity, in aboliſhing the ſervitude or villanage of the peaſants of Bohemia. If the ſteadineſs and perſeverance of this monarch, in executing his ſchemes of melioration, are equal to his activity and the wiſdom of his projects, Auſtria, without looking out for new conqueſts, will be ſoon one of the firſt powers in Europe.

TABLE IX,

HOLLAND.

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TABLE IX.

Extent, Divisions, and Poſſeſſion.	Area in ſqu miles	Popu at on.	at on ſ r each ſin e ſq mile	CHIEF TOWNS.
51°. 2 —53°. 30. Latitude 2°——7. Eaſt Longitude	10,000	2,000 coc Pe l 2,7 ,8,632 ac o d ing to a pr c acc given in 1795	200 272	113 Io ns—1400 V llages
1 Proc ce of GELDER. Sub-divide d n o d briſt of N mwe guen, Zutphen, and mme n	18,0			2c Towns n all Inhabitants n cn - - - - 12,000 Zutph n rnh n - - - - 8cc
2. HOLLAND, viz. North Holl nd th Ho land Weſtfrieſland	2000	980,000 Peſſel.	490	n te m - - 212,0c Ro am - - 3c,cc H ag - - - 3 ,cc l v t - - - 4 ,00 D r cht - - 19,coc F lum - - 3 ,cc Del - - - 20, c aickmar - - - cc Ho n - - - - - 12, oc Co a - - - - - 1 ,000
3 ZEELAND. 1 Part near the Eaſt Scheld 2 Part near the Weſt ——	4 c	8 , oo	1 -	, l wi —4co V lla s. t wns—110 V l s l - - - 30,c Am t ort

TABLE

TABLE IX. continued.

Extent, Divisions, and Poſſeſſions.	Area in Sq. miles.	Population.	Persons to each Sq. mile	CHIEF TOWNS.
4. UTRECHT.	512	73,000 Buſch.	144	Towns. Inhabitants
1. The Towns				Middelburg - - 24,000
2. The flat country				Vlissingen (Flushing) - - 800
				Zierikzee - - 10,500
5. FRIESLAND.	880	140,000 Buſch.	153	11 Towns—306 Villages.
1 The towns				Leuwarden
2. Oſtergo				Franeker
3 Weſtergo				
4 Zeven Wonden				
6. OVERYSSEL.	1792			Deventer
1 Vallard				Zwoll
2 Twent				
3. Vollenhoven				
7. GRONINGEN.	640	100,000	156	Groeningen
1. Town of Groeningen				Delzyl
2 Emmelund				3 Towns—165 Villages
Counties of Drenthe, Under the protection of the United Provinces				Koevorden (Fortreſs) 37 Villages
Lands of the Generality (Generaly Landen) commonly called Dutch Brabant	2000	435,000	217	Boſſe Duc - - - - 12,000
				Breda - - - - 9500
				Bergen op Zoom - - - 6500
				Maſtricht - - - 18,000
				Venloo
				Sluis
				Hulſt - - - - 2500

POSSESSIONS.

1. In Asia.

1. THE coasts of the island of Java; the capital of which is Batavia, the seat of the governor-general of all the East-Indian settlements of the Dutch. 2. Some settlements on the coasts of Sumatra. 3. The greatest part of the Molucca or Spice Islands, chiefly Amboyna, Banda, Ternate, Tidor, Motyr, Bachian; settlements or factories on the island of Celebes, &c. 4. On the coasts of Malabar and Coromandel; Sedaipatam, Bimlipatam, Tegapatam, Cochin, and Canannore; factories at Surat, Petra, &c. also in the gulph of Persia, at Gamron, Bassora, &c. 5. On the island of Ceylon: the chief place is Colombo; they have besides Trinconomale, Jasnapatnam, Negambo, and a great number of lodges or factories.

2. In

2. In Africa.

1. The Cape of Good Hope, a large ſettlement, of which the Capetown, with its fortreſs, is the capital. There is alſo a French colony at the Cape, called Nouvelle Rochelle. The governor of the Cape does not depend on the governor of Batavia, but is under the immediate controul of the ſtates of Holland. 2. George de la Mina, and other fortreſſes and factories in Guinea.

3. In America.

1. The iſlands of St. Euſtatia, Saba, Curaçoa. 2. The colonies of Eſſequibo, Demerary, Surinam, and Berbice, on the continent of Guiana.

WEALTH AND COMMERCE.

THE Seven United Provinces afford a ſtriking proof, that unwearied and perſevering induſtry is capable of conquering every diſadvantage of climate and ſituation. The air and the water are here nearly equally bad: the ſoil produces naturally ſcarcely any thing but turf; and the poſſeſſion of this very ſoil is diſputed by the Ocean, who riſing conſiderably above the level of the land, can only be prevented by ſtrong and expenſive dykes, from overflowing a ſpot which ſeems to be ſtolen from his natural domains. Notwithſtanding theſe difficulties, which might ſeem unſurmountable to a leſs laborious race of inhabitants, the infinite labours of the patient Dutchmen have rendered this ſmall, and ſeemingly inſignificant territory, in fact, one of the richeſt ſpots in Europe, both with reſpect to population and property. In other countries, which are poſſeſſed of a variety of natural productions, we are not ſurprized to find manufactures employed in multiplying the riches which the bounty of the ſoil beſtows. But to ſee, in a country

like

like Holland, large woollen manufactures, where there are ſcarce any flocks; numberleſs artiſts employed in metals, where there is no mine; thouſands of ſaw-mills, where there is ſcarce any foreſt; an immenſe quantity of corn, exported from a country where there is not agriculture enough to ſupport one-half of its inhabitants, is what muſt ſtrike every attentive obſerver with admiration. Among the moſt valuable natural productions of the United Netherlands, we may reckon their excellent cattle. Of vegetables they export large quantities of madder, which is chiefly cultivated in the province of Zeeland: the iſland of Schouwen produces annually 2,000,000 lb. Formerly, England bought of this article to the value of almoſt 300,000 l. ſterling. The moſt conſiderable revenue ariſes from the fiſheries. Sir William Temple ſays, that in his time the Dutch fiſheries yielded a clear profit of many millions of florins. At preſent, however, ſome branches of the fiſheries, for inſtance, the whale fiſhery, are become ſo inſignificant, that, in order to keep them up in ſome degree, the ſtates are obliged to allow a bounty of 30 florins for every man employed in the

whale

whale fiſhery. This branch, which formerly employed 250 veſſels, requires, at preſent, little more than 100. The number of ſhips formerly engaged in the herring fiſhery is reduced from upwards of 2000 to leſs than 200, and the profits earned by them do not quite amount to one million of florins. This fiſhery maintains, however, even now, no leſs than 20,000 people. Cod, another important article of the fiſhery, is caught near the Dogger Bank, and near the coaſt of Holland. About 140 veſſels are employed in that branch.

The Dutch were formerly in poſſeſſion of the coaſting trade and freight of almoſt all other trading nations: they were alſo the bankers for all Europe; advantages by which they have gained immenſe ſums. Yet theſe advantages did not continue to be ſo lucrative, when the other European nations began to open their eyes ſo far as to employ their own ſhipping in their trade, and to eſtabliſh banks of their own. Notwithſtanding theſe deductions, the Dutch trade is ſtill immenſe: in conſequence of their vaſt wealth, they regulate ſtill the exchange for all Europe; and their country is, as it were, the univerſal

warehouſe

warehouſe of the commodities of every quarter of the globe.

The trade of Holland extends to every country of the world; and, in ſome of its branches, they have totally excluded their European competitors. To begin with the countries of Europe, the trade of the Dutch to Ruſſia is conſiderable: they exported to Peterſburg alone, in 1754, goods to the value of 400,000 rubles, beſides what was ſent to Archangel, Riga, &c. They imported goods from Ruſſia to the value of about 300,000 rubles. The exports of the Dutch to Dantzick, the centre of the Pruſſian trade, amounted, in 1771, to upwards of five millions of florins; their imports from Dantzick to 2,500,000 florins. A conſiderable trade is carried on with Sweden and Denmark. The Dutch trade in the Baltic, if not equal to the Engliſh, is, at leaſt, next to it in importance; yet, in proportion as the other European nations are endeavouring to ſhare in the profits of the trade to the Baltic ſea, the profits of the Dutch have naturally decreaſed. In the Atlantic Ocean, the Dutch trade is of very great extent: from Portugal and Spain they draw ready money, but to France,

France, on the contrary, they pay a large balance of it. They ſupply Italy with moſt European and Indian goods: their trade to the Levante, though at preſent on the decline, is ſtill very profitable. A particular board of the Levant trade has been erected in 1624. The good fortune of the Dutch, in rendering themſelves the excluſive maſters of the ſpice-trade, and of very large territories in the Eaſt-Indies, will enable them to ſupport, for a long while, a very extenſive trade in Europe. Their Eaſt-India Company was erected in the year 1602, by uniting ſeveral ſmall trading ſocieties into one, to whom the ſtates granted the privilege of an excluſive trade. The original capital did not exceed 6,459,840 florins, divided into ſhares of 3000 florins each: with this ſmall ſum they formed ſettlements, and conquered ſeveral provinces in Aſia, much larger than the Seven United Provinces together. The Company is now divided into ſix chambers of proprietors, eſtabliſhed at Amſterdam, Middelburg, Delft, Rotterdam, Hoorn, and Enkhuizen, each of which is under the management of their own directors, called Bewindhebbers. The Stadtholder is the firſt

of

of the directors of each chamber, and conſequently the head of the Eaſt-India Company. The governor-general of the Dutch poſſeſſions in the Eaſt-Indies, is appointed by the Company, and reſiding at Batavia, is inveſted with very ample powers: he is preſident of the council of Batavia, called the Court or Council of India. Among the monopolies of the Eaſt-India Company, the ſpice-trade, comprehending the articles of cloves, mace, nutmeg, cinnamon, &c. is the moſt valuable, and forms a very great branch of the Aſiatic as well as European commerce of Holland: 150,000 lb. of cloves are annually ſold in India, and 360,000 carried to Europe: the Company pays on the ſpot only eight ſtivers per pound, but the freight and other charges raiſe this price to 43 ſtivers, and the Company ſells it at no leſs than 75 ſtivers. 250,000 lb. of nutmeg, the produce of the iſland of Banda, are ſold in Europe, and 100,000 lb. in India: the prime coſt is ſomewhat more than one ſtiver per pound; including charges, the pound ſtands the Company in about 25 ſtivers, and is ſold by the Company at upwards of 50 ſtivers weſt of the Cape of Good Hope, and at about

about 40 ſtivers eaſt of it. Of cinnamon, 200,000 lb. are ſold in India, and 400,000 in Europe. The Java coffee is the beſt we know of after that of Mecca in Arabia. Other great branches of this trade are rice, cotton, pepper, &c. articles of great importance, but not in the excluſive poſſeſſion of the Dutch. The whole profits of the trade of the Eaſt-India Company is computed at 12,700,000 florins annually; but this ſtatement ſeems to fall ſhort of the real produce: yet, upon the whole, the affairs of the Eaſt-India Company are very much on the decline. The Dutch have hitherto been the only European nation permitted to carry on a direct trade to Japan: the profits of this trade, however, have alſo declined, and are ſuppoſed to amount, at preſent, to no more than 20,000 florins. The Weſt-India Company is, by no means, ſo conſiderable as the Eaſt-India Company. It carries on a trade both to the Weſt-Indies and to the Coaſt of Guinea; on the latter chiefly for ſlaves. Diſtinct from this company are the two companies which trade to Surinam and Berbice: the Stadtholder is the head of all theſe trading companies.

The

The town of Amſterdam has more than one-half of the trade of Holland; and in this celebrated center of an immenſe commerce, a bank is eſtabliſhed of that ſpecies called a Giro-bank, of very great wealth and greater credit.

In Holland, the inland trade is very much facilitated by means of the numerous canals, which croſs the country in every direction. The number of manufactures eſtabliſhed in the United Provinces is aſtoniſhing. Saardam, for inſtance, a village in North Holland, contains about 900 windmills, partly corn-mills, partly ſaw and paper-mills, and mills for the making of white lead, &c. In former times, the Dutch were the excluſive poſſeſſors of ſeveral ingenious manufactures and arts; for inſtance, the refining of camphor and borax, the cutting and poliſhing of diamonds, the refining of ſugar, &c. but at preſent theſe myſteries, very few of them excepted, are in the hands of many other nations; to whoſe commercial ignorance and want of induſtry in former times the Dutch were indebted for immenſe gains, which have decreaſed with their cauſes: among the reſt, the woollen manufactory has ſuffered a

prodigious decreaſe. From theſe facts it appears, that the Dutch trade is no longer in its ancient flouriſhing ſtate, to which, even if the frugality and induſtry of the nation had not been diminiſhed by too great wealth, the rivalſhip of other nations, and the commercial knowledge of the age, will never ſuffer it to riſe again.

GOVERNMENT.

SINCE the great confederation of Utrecht, made in the year 1579, the Seven United Provinces muſt be looked upon as one political body, united for the preſervation of the whole, of which each ſingle province is governed by its own laws, and exerciſes moſt of the rights of a ſovereign ſtate. In conſequence of the union, the Seven Provinces guarantee each other's rights, they make war and peace, they levy taxes, &c. in their joint capacity; but as to internal government, each province is independent of the other provinces, and of the ſupreme power of the republic. The Seven Provinces rank in the

ſame order in which they are placed in the preceding table. They ſend deputies, choſen out of the provincial ſtates, to the general-aſſembly, called the *States-general*, which is inveſted with the ſupreme legiſlative power of the confederation. Each province has the right to ſend as many deputies as it pleaſes, but it has only one voice in the aſſembly of the States. According to the lateſt regulations, that aſſembly is compoſed of 58 deputies. In affairs of great conſequence, ſuch as declaring war and making peace, a ſecret committee is choſen out of theſe deputies, called the *Secrette Beſoigne*, in which the province of Holland has two voices.

At the head of this republican government there has uſually been and is at preſent the Prince Stadtholder or governor, who exerciſes a very conſiderable part of the executive power of the ſtate. It appears, from hiſtory, that the United Provinces were, at different times, without a Stadtholder; but theſe periods were uſually very turbulent; and whenever a war broke out, the republic was always under the neceſſity of chuſing again a Stadtholder. It ſhould ſeem, therefore, that the dignity and the power of a

Stadtholder, is eſſential and ſalutary to the conſtitution of the United Provinces. There have, however, conſtantly been and there are now two oppoſite parties in the ſtate, one of which, who call themſelves the patriots, are averſe, and the other are attached to the power of the Stadtholder. This dignity, though hereditary, and of the greateſt weight in the ſtate, cannot be conſidered otherwiſe than the firſt office entruſted to a ſubject of the republic, and falls conſiderably ſhort of the moſt limited ſovereignty. The Stadtholder is not entitled to a voice in the ſupreme legiſlative aſſembly, but he may be preſent at their meetings. He is captain-general and high-admiral of the land and naval forces of the republic; and he enjoyed, before the preſent troubles, a very ample patronage in conſequence of this military command. He is preſident of the Eaſt and Weſt-India Companies, and Stadtholder of each ſingle province, but with unequal prerogatives. In ſome of the provinces he has the excluſive right of nominating the magiſtrates of the towns, and the power of pardoning criminals; in ſome he has a ſhare in the legiſlative power, and a voice in the

aſſembly

aſſembly of the ſtates of the province; in others he has either not all or none of theſe rights. The party of the patriots have, within theſe few years, been much intent on curtailing and reſtraining within narrow limits the power of the Stadtholder. Another great dignity in the republic, the influence of which is uſually oppoſed to the Stadtholder's intereſt, is the place of Grand Penſionary, formerly called the advocate of the republic. The Grand Penſionary is, by virtue of his place, perpetual member of the higheſt legiſlative aſſemb'" ~ the ſtates-general and the ſecret committee.

The departments which are employed in ſuch public affairs as concern all the Seven Provinces are the following: 1. The Council of State, compoſed of twelve members, choſen by the Seven Provinces, under the preſidency of the Stadtholder. It has its treaſurer and ſecretary, and is next in rank to the States-general. 2. The Department of the Revenue, conſiſting of fourteen members. 3. The Army and Navy Treaſury: this department has the reviſion of the accounts of the military expenditure, and is compoſed of four members. Each

province is governed by the aſſembly of its reſpective ſtates. Theſe ſtates are, in almoſt all the provinces, compoſed of the nobility, or great landholders, and of the towns. In the aſſembly of the ſtates of the province of Holland, the Great Penſionary preſides: the towns are governed by their own elective magiſtrates, whoſe juriſdiction is confined within the walls of the towns: certain diſtricts in the provinces have their courts of juſtice, and each province has a general court, to which appeal lies from the inferior courts and the town magiſtrates. Theſe tribunals are called by the name of the provinces in which they are eſtabliſhed, *de Hof van Holland, de Hof van Gelderen*, &c. each of them makes uſe of a particular code of laws, adapted to the ancient cuſtoms and rights of the provinces; where theſe laws are deficient, recourſe muſt be had to the Roman law.

FINANCES.

FINANCES.

THE public revenue is to be conſidered in two different points of view, as it is raiſed for the uſe of the whole confederation, or for the expenditure of each ſingle province. According to the lateſt account, which is believed to be authentic, the annual income of all the Seven Provinces amounts to upwards of forty-five millions of florins, or nearly 4,500,000l. ſterling. The revenue of the province of Holland, which is by far the richeſt, and the moſt powerful of the Seven, is computed at upwards of twenty millions of florins. Thirteen millions and a half of this ſum, making the ordinary revenue of Holland, ariſe from the houſe and land-tax, and from the exciſe and ſtamp-duties; the remainder, or the extraordinary revenue of this province, is made up by contributions of the hundredth, two hundredth, and four hundredth parts of the income of lands, annuities and capitals. The general finances of the republic, for the ſupport of the whole political body, ariſe, 1. from the revenues of Dutch Brabant, or the

lands of the generality: 2. from the duties on exports and imports: 3. from confiſcated goods, and the ſums paid by the priviledged trading companies: 4. from the yearly contributions of the different provinces, according to the following rates: of every 100 florins contributed,

	Flor.	Stivers.	Doits
The province of Gueldern pays	5	11	2
—— Holland	57	14	8
—— Zeeland	9	1	10
—— Utrecht	5	15	5
—— Friesland	11	10	11
—— Overyſſel	3	10	8
—— Groeningen	5	15	6
County of Drenthe —	0	19	10
	100	0	0

The debts of the republic exceed 2000 millions of florins. The province of Holland alone owed, in 1768, 450 millions, but almoſt the whole of this ſum to its own ſubjects; but, on the other ſide, has lent, on very advantageous conditions, large ſums of money to other ſtates. In the year 1781, there were due the following ſums:

1. From

1.	From England,	165 mill. of flor.
1.	—— France,	170
3.	—— Germany, Denmark, Sweden, and Ruſſia	250
		585

The United Provinces draw more than 25 millions per annum from theſe countries as the intereſt on the large capitals lent them. (See Polit. Journ.)

ARMY.

In times of peace, the ſtanding army is as follows:

CAVALRY.

		Men.
Regiments—Eſcadrons.		
—— 1.	Guard of the Stadtholder	174
—— 3.	Dutch Guards —	258
6 ——	Cavalry (336 men each)	2016
3 ——	Dragoons —	1008
		3456

INFANTRY.

		Men.
1 regiment of Dutch Guards		1,116
1 ——— of Swiſs Guards		1,120
29 ——— of national and Germ. troops (710 men each)	}	20,880
1 ——— of Walloons	—	1,080
3 ——— of Scotchmen	—	2,160
5 ——— of Swiſs	—	3,600
1 ——— of Marines	—	720
1 ——— of Artillery	—	1,800
4 companies of Miners	—	208
Corps of Engineers	—	97
		36,281

Some of the guards, and the three Scotch regiments, are at preſent diſbanded. In the year 1784, when Holland was threatened with a war by the Emperor, the army was increaſed to upwards of 50,000 men. Beſides the Stadtholder, who is the head of the army, in times of war and danger a field marſhal general is appointed.

NAVY.

NAVY.

(In 1782) 42 ſhips of the line.
43 frigates.
10 cutters.

RATES.

8 ſhips of 70—74 guns.
22 ——— ——64
12 ——— 50—56
14 ——— 40—44
13 ——— 36——
16 ——— 20—24 Hiſt. Port. 1783.

(In 1784) 43 ſhips of the line.
43 frigates.

The five chambers of the admiralty have the management of all naval affairs. The Stadtholder, in the capacity of high-admiral of the republic, preſides in the five chambers of admiralty: he formerly appointed the flag officers, but this privilege has been of late diſputed by the States-general. He has a tenth ſhare of all the prizes made during a war. The fleet, which is divided into three ſquadrons, is diſtributed between the harbours of Amſterdam, called the Texel, and that of Rotterdam, in the province of Holland, and the ſea-port towns of Zeeland.

RELI-

RELIGION.

THE Calviniſt, or reformed religion, is eſtabliſhed in Holland; the Lutheran, the Roman Catholic, many other Chriſtian ſects, and the Jews, are tolerated. The Synod of Dordrecht, held in 1618, made the ſtricteſt notion of predeſtination an eſſential article of faith in the Dutch church. None but Calviniſts can hold any employment of truſt or profit. There is, properly ſpeaking, no difference of rank among the clergy: the church is governed by ſynods, compoſed of the miniſters and antiſtites, or preſbyters. Beſides nine ſynods for ſingle provinces, there is one great national ſynod at the Hague, however, to the controul of the States general, which are conſidered as the head of the church. The French and Walloon Calviniſt churches have ſynods of their own. There are, in the Seven Provinces, 1579 paſtors or miniſters of the eſtabliſhed church, 90 of the Walloon church, 800 Roman Catholic, 53 Lutheran, 43 Arminian, and 312 Anabaptiſt miniſters. In the Eaſt-Indies there are 46, and in the Weſt-Indies nine clergymen of the eſtabliſhed church.

GENE-

GENERAL REMARKS.

THE natural and political ſituation of the Dutch nation may be compared with the colonies of Canadian beavers, who, by unwearied labour and mutual aſſiſtance, are enabled to build ſecure habitations on the banks of rapid rivers, and to form ſocieties rendered durable and invincible by the tie of firm union: yet their wonderful fabric would, by diſſenſion and ſeparation, ſoon ſink into inſignificance or annihilation. When we conſider what Holland was before the union of Utrecht, and when we afterwards ſee the inhabitants of that ſwampy ſpot aſſume, for an inconſiderable period of time, the arbitrium of Europe and the Indies, it is not without regret we witneſs the decay of their power, that moſt admirable monument of human exertion and induſtry. An impartial obſerver, however, who cannot wiſh to ſee the benefits of activity confined to one ſpot, and extorted from the ignorance and weakneſs of other nations, will be comforted by the conſideration, that Holland's excluſive advantages are leſſened by the general increaſe of

of induſtry and happineſs throughout all the ſtates of Europe, and not by any of thoſe great calamities or revolutions, which have put a period to the power of other commercial ſtates. Its decline is gentle and gradual: yet ſo high was the eminence Holland was arrived at, that it is ſtill poſſeſſed of great power and conſequence. It may long continue to be the centre of union of the great European commerce and the aſylum of religious and civil liberty, if the moſt dangerous enemies of this ſtate, civil diſſenſions, and the extinction of public virtue, do not haſten its gliding down the ſlope of ruin, and render it an eaſy prey to an inſidious neighbour, who ſeems even now to be willingly acknowledged as their maſter, by a miſtaken and corrupted part of the nation.

The ſcientific and literary ſtate of Holland ſeems to be involved in the decline of its political conſequence. Its univerſities were formerly much more attractive and frequented, but their improvements have not kept pace with the progreſs and the wants of the age. They are five in number, at Leyden, Francker, Utrecht, Groeningen, and Haiderwyck; and ſome of their regulations

are

are deſerving of much praiſe. Beſides the univerſities, there are ſeveral good ſchools in the United Provinces, among which the Academical Gymnaſium, or Athenaeum of Amſterdam, is entitled to particular notice. Many reſpectable ſcientific ſocieties are eſtabliſhed in Holland, and one at Batavia. The public libraries of the univerſities were more celebrated while ſcarce books and manuſcripts were held in more general eſtimation, but in utility and extent, they are not to be compared with the great libraries in other countries: yet numerous private libraries ſupply their deficiencies, and facilitate the reſearches of the ſtudious. Public and private collections of natural curioſities, antiquities, paintings, &c. are very numerous in a country where the habit of collecting has been rendered general by the ſpirit of commerce.

TABLE

TABLE X.

GREAT-BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

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TABLE

TABLE X.

GREAT-BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

Areas in Square Miles.		Population.	Popul'at. for each ſingle Sq. Mile.
92,294	Kitchin	According to ſome Authors only 9,000,000	
104,701	Guthrie, or Templeman	To others 11,800,000	115
100,928	St. Ueb.	Probably 11,000,000	109

A. GREAT-BRITAIN.

Extent and Diviſions.	Areas in Sq. Miles.	Population.	Populat. for every ſqu. mile
Long. 2° eaſt, 6° 20′ weſt	Kitchin 70,096	9,300,000 but more probably	
Lat. 49°——58° 50′— The Shetland Iſlands to above 61°.	St. U. 79,712	8,300,000	105
ENGLAND and WALES	54,112	8,000,000 8,500,000 Dr. Price 8,447,700 Chalmer 7,000,000 the moſt probable ſtatement	129

In England are 28 Cities, above 650 Towns, and 1,586,000 Dwellings. CHALMER.

SCOTLAND	25,600	1,300,000 1,400,000 according to others	51

B. IRELAND.

	21,216	2,500,000 2,161,514 B.	117

ENGLAND

ENGLAND is divided into the following 40 Counties or Shires.

	CHIEF TOWNS.	
1. Middleſex	London	800,000 inhab. 900,000 accord. to Entick. Houſes 120,000, and is conſtantly increaſing.
2. Surrey	Southwark	1,000,000 Buſching 750,000 Wendeborn 862,500 medium.
3. Eſſex	Colcheſter, Harwich	
4. Hertfordſhire	Hertford	
5. Kent	Canterbury, Dover	
6. Suſſex	Chicheſter, Winchelſea	
7. Buckinghamſhire	Buckingham	
8. Bedfordſhire	Bedford	
9. Huntingdonſhire	Huntingdon	
10. Cambridgeſhire	Cambridge, 6000, Ely	
11. Suffolk	Ipſwich, Bury, Newmarket	
12. Norfolk	Norwich, Yarmouth	
13. Oxfordſhire	Oxford	
14. Berkſhire	Reading, Windſor	
15. Glouceſterſhire	Glouceſter	
16. Worceſterſhire	Worceſter, 25,000	
17. Monmouthſhire	Monmouth	
18. Herefordſhire	Hereford	
19. Shropſhire	Shrewſbury	
20. Staffordſhire	Stafford, Lichfield	
21. Warwickſhire	Warwick, Coventry 25,000, Birmingham 50,000	
22. Leiceſterſhire	Leiceſter	
23. Derbyſhire	Derby	
24. Nottinghamſhire	Nottingham 17,000	
25. Lincolnſhire	Lincoln	

26.	Rutlandſhire	Okeham
27.	Northamptonſhire	Northampton
28.	Somerſetſhire	Bath, Briſtol, 90,000
29.	Wiltſhire	Saliſbury
30.	Hampſhire	Wincheſter, Portſmouth, Southampton
31.	Dorſetſhire	Dorcheſter
32.	Devonſhire	Exeter, Plymouth
33.	Cornwall	Launceſton
34.	Yorkſhire	York, Hull, Halifax, Leeds
35.	Cheſhire	Cheſter, 14,000
36.	Durham	Durham
37.	Lancaſhire	Lancaſter, Manchester 28,000, Liverpool 40,000
38.	Weſtmoreland	Appleby
39.	Northumberland	Newcaſtle, 40,000
40.	Cumberland	Carliſle, Whitehaven

WALES contains 7011 ſquare miles, and about 300,000 people. It is divided into 12 counties: Pembrokeſhire, Carmarthenſhire, Glamorganſhire, Brecknockſhire, Cardiganſhire, Radnorſhire, Montgomeryſhire, Merionethſhire, Flintſhire, Denbighſhire, Carnarvonſhire, Angleſea.

In England and Wales are 28 cities, 650 towns, 1,586,000 dwelling houſes (Chalmer).

SCOTLAND is divided into 31 ſhires and two ſtewardſhips; 18 counties belonging to South Scotland, 15 to North Scotland. Their names

names are the following: 1. Midlothian (or Edinburg) 2. Weſt Lothian. 3. Eaſt Lothian. 4. Merſe or Berwick. 5. Roxborough. 6. Selkirk. 7. Peebles. 8. Dumfries. 9. Galloway. 10. Air. 11. Lanerk. 12. Dumbarton. 13. Renfrew. 14. Stirling. 15. Clacmannan, 16. Fife. 17. Kinroſs. 18. Bute. 19. Argyle. 20. Perth. 21. Forfar. 22. Kinkardin. 23. Aberdeen. 24. Bamff. 25. Nairne. 26. Elgin. 27. Inverneſs. 28. Cromartie. 29. Roſs. 30. Sutherland. 31. Caithneſs, and the two ſtewarties: 32. Kirkudbright, and 33. Orkney and Shetland Iſlands. The chief towns are Edinburg, 80,000 inhabitants, Glaſgow 30,000, Perth 11,000, Aberdeen 18,000, Inverneſs 11,000, Dumfries 5000.

IRELAND is divided into four provinces, thoſe of *Leinſter*, *Ulſter*, *Connaught*, and *Munſter*. Leinſter contains the following 12 counties: 1. Dublin. 2. Louth. 3. Wicklow. 4. Wexford. 5. Longford. 6. Eaſt Meath. 7. Weſt Meath. 8. King's County. 9. Queen's County. 10. Kilkenny. 11. Kildare. 12. Carlow. — Ulſter contains nine counties: 13. Down. 14. Armagh. 15.

Monaghan. 16. Cavan. 17. Antrim. 18. Londonderry. 19. Tyrone. 20. Fermanagh. 21. Donegall.—To Connaught belong 5 counties: 22. Leitrim. 23. Roſcommon. 24. Mayo. 25. Sligo. 26. Galway.—Munſter contains 6 counties: 27. Clare. 28. Corke. 29. Kerry. 30. Limerick. 31. Tipperary. 32. Waterford. The chief towns of this kingdom are the following; Dublin, the capital of Ireland, contains about 160,000 inhabitants, (See Kutner's Letters) Corke 87,000, Limerick 32,000, Waterford and Gallway.

Britiſh Poſſeſſions beyond the Seas.

1. In EUROPE the fortreſs of Gibraltar, on the coaſt of Spain, 3,200 inhabitants.

2. In AFRICA, Cabo Corſe, on the coaſt of Guinea, and ſome other forts there and near the Gambia, and the iſland of St. Helena.

3. In ASIA the extenſive countries of Bengal, Bahar, and part of Orixa: the capital of Bengal is Calcutta, or Fort William, the reſidence of the governor-general of the Engliſh Eaſt-

Eaſt-India ſettlements. Theſe territories are computed to contain 10,000,000 inhabitants, and to be in extent near 150,000 ſquare miles. 2. Large ſettlements on the coaſt of Coromandel, of which Madras is the capital, containing 80,000 inhabitants. 3. The ſettlements of Bombay and Surat, on the Malabar coaſt, and many other forts and factories on the continent of India, and the iſlands of Sumatra, Bally, Banca.

4. In AMERICA the extenſive provinces of Canada, 1. Nova Scotia; ſettlements in Labrador and Hudſon's [illegible] the iſlands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton and St. John. 2. In the *Weſt-Indies*, the Bahama iſlands, Bermudas, Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Chriſtopher's, Antigua, Montſerrat, Nevis, Grenada, and the Grenadines, Barbuda, Dominica, St. Vincent, Anguilla. Jamaica, the largeſt of the Weſt-India iſlands, is computed to produce annually 70,000 tons of ſugar, upwards of 4,000,000 gallons of rum, beſides coffee, cocoa, indigo and pepper.

WEALTH AND COMMERCE.

THE two diviſions of Great-Britain, England and Scotland, differ exceedingly with reſpect to their natural fertility and to the wealth of their inhabitants. South-Britain, or England, abounds with all the uſeful productions of thoſe countries of Europe which are ſituated in the ſame climate with it, wine, ſilk, and ſome wild animals excepted. The genius and induſtry of the inhabitants have increaſed and improved many of the natural productions to a degree which leaves the efforts of all neighbouring nations at a diſtance. Agriculture, the art of gardening, the cultivation of all thoſe plants which are moſt uſeful for feeding cattle as well as breeding horſes and ſheep, are carried in England to an aſtoniſhing height. Of about 42,000,000 acres, which England contains, only 8,500,000 produce corn; the reſt is either covered with wood, or laid out in meadows, gardens, parks, &c. and a conſiderable part is ſtill waſte land. Yet out of the crops obtained from the fifth

part

part of the lands, there have been exported, during the ſpace of five years, from 1745 to 1750, quantities of corn to the value of 7,600,000l. ſterling. About the year 1766 it was found, that the exportation of corn was carried too far, and proved prejudicial to the country; it was conſequently entirely prohibited, and the importation of corn permitted. The net produce of the Engliſh corn-land is eſtimated by Mr. Young at 9,000,000l. ſterling; the rents of paſture-ground, meadows, woods, commons, &c. at 7,000,000l. the number of people engaged in and maintained by farming is ſtated by him to amount to 2,800,000 perſons. Among the other uſeful plants, hops, ſaffron, wood, and madder, are become very important articles of commerce. Malt-liquor and cyder are brought in England to a very high degree of perfection, and render wine a ſuperfluity; yet luxury deems the latter eſſentially neceſſary.

The counties of Cheſhire, Lancaſhire, Yorkſhire, Leiceſterſhire, Derbyſhire, Norfolk, Suffolk, Kent, Glouceſterſhire, and Somerſetſhire, are moſt diſtinguiſhed for their excellent cattle. The city of Cheſter

exports annually 22,000 tons of cheeſe, 14,000 of which are ſent to London. One of the greateſt ſources of the riches of England is wool, the great ſtaple commodity of this country. The ſtock of the beſt ſort of the preſent Engliſh ſheep came over from Spain; Edward the IVth had 3000 Spaniſh ſheep brought over, which he ordered to be diſtributed among the ſeveral pariſhes of England; and ever ſince that time, great care has been taken to continue and to improve the breed: there are inſtances, that a ſingle ram, of extraordinary beauty and ſtrength, has been purchaſed with 100 guineas. The counties of Herefordſhire, Glouceſterſhire, Somerſetſhire, Hampſhire, Dorſetſhire, Derbyſhire, Leiceſterſhire, Lincolnſhire, Durham, and the Eaſt-riding of Yorkſhire, are moſt famous for their large and excellent flocks. At the beginning of the preſent century, the number of ſheep was computed to amount to 12 millions, and there is no doubt but that this number has been greatly increaſed ſince that time. In the years 1769, 1770, and 1771, the value of the woollens exported from England amounted to upwards of 10,500,000l. ſterling, excluſive of the

the woollens of Yorkſhire, the value of which, in the ſame period of time, amounted to upwards of 3,000,000l. ſterling. (S. Chalmer.) The Engliſh horſes, the breed of which was much improved by Arabian, Spaniſh, and Barbary horſes, are famous all over Europe for their beauty and ſwiftneſs. The beſt race-horſes run 82 feet in one ſecond, or nearly an Engliſh mile in one minute.

Though neither gold nor ſilver is found in the Engliſh mines, or only in quantities too inſignificant to be mentioned, yet the other minerals are great ſources of wealth. Copper, tin, lead, and iron, are found in great abundance, and the firſt two metals of the very beſt quality. The copper annually obtained from the mines of Cornwall is eſtimated at 4000 tons; the number of Corniſh miners is ſaid to amount to 80,000 people. The tin of Cornwall is valued at 200,000l. ſterling annually. Northumberland, Durham, Lancaſhire, Cumberland, Shropſhire, Staffordſhire, Wales, and Devonſhire, produce large quantities of iron, which is, however, of an inferior quality to the iron of Sweden, Stiria, Carinthia, and Ruſſia; it is there-

therefore neceſſary to import from theſe countries upwards of 25,000 tons, for the manufactures of finer tools and hardware. The moſt important manufactures of the latter ſort are at Sheffield, where it is ſuppoſed upwards of 40,000 workmen are employed by about 600 owners and manufacturers. One company of iron manufacturers in Shropſhire uſe every day 500 tons of coals in their works. In Great-Britain there is made every year 50—60,000 tons of pig-iron, and 20—30,000 tons of bar-iron. (Lord Sheffield.)

England poſſeſſes a very great treaſure in its inexhauſtible coal-mines, which are worked chiefly in the northern counties, from whence they are conveyed by ſea and by the inland canals to every other part of the kingdom. The mines of Northumberland alone ſend every year upwards of 600,000 chaldron of coals to London, and 1500 veſſels are employed in carrying them to that harbour, along the eaſtern coaſt of England. This trade and navigation is one of the great nurſeries of ſeamen, and, in that reſpect, of the utmoſt importance to the commerce and preſervation of the empire.

Scotland's

Scotland's natural products are greatly inferior to those of England, both with respect to plenty and variety. It produces chiefly flax, hemp, coals, some iron, and a great deal of lead; the most considerable lead-mine is at Leads-hill, in Lanerkshire, in which 500 people find continual employment. The trade of this country consists chiefly in linen, thread, and coals; but of late the Scotch have, with a laudable spirit of emulation, set up a number of manufactures, especially of cloth, carpets, sugar, &c.

Ireland is, in most of ... provinces, not inferior in fertility to England, but very far behind it in point of civilization and industry. This inferiority must be partly attributed to the idleness, ignorance, and oppression of the inhabitants; and partly to the commercial jealousy of the British legislation, from which Ireland has at length been emancipated. The chief articles of its produce are cattle, sheep, hogs, and flax; large provisions of excellent salt-pork, salt-beef, and butter, are annually exported; the Irish wool is very fine, but has hitherto not been manufactured. The principal manufacture of Ireland is that of linen, which is at present a very valuable article of exportation. 1500

persons

perſons are employed in the ſilk manufactures at Dublin. With the increaſe of Iriſh liberty and induſtrythis kingdom will ſoon riſe to the commercial conſequence to which it is entitled by its fertility and ſituation. The total value of the exports from Ireland to Great-Britain in 1779 and 1780, is at an average 2,300,000l. ſterling. The balance in favour of Ireland, even before 1750, 400,000l. ſterling.

The ſtate of the manufactures in England excites the higheſt admiration. They are confeſſedly, and with very few exceptions, ſuperior in every reſpect to thoſe of all other countries. An enumeration of them would comprehend every contrivance of mechaniſm in its moſt improved ſtate which ever was invented by the ingenuity of any age or country for the convenience and uſe of man. Their ſurprizing perfection muſt be accounted for from many circumſtances, which no where coincided ſo happily to promote their progreſs as they do in this iſland. It ſeems they are nearly equally indebted to the national character, to the ſituation of the country, and the excellence of its conſtitution. Nothing could be more favourable to the progreſs of the mechanical arts, than the

Engliſh

Engliſh reflexion and perſeverance, and the excluſive attention they are able to beſtow on favourite purſuits, often with the neglect of every other concern, and their enterprizing ſpirit, not deſponding under the bad ſucceſs of firſt trials, animated by the proſpect of ample rewards, and by the certainty of enjoying the glory and the fruits of their labours. The inſular ſituation of England taught its inhabitants to conſider the ſurrounding ocean as the bulwark of their ſafety, the theatre of their power, and the ſource of their wealth. Navigation with its appendage diſtant acquiſitions and colonization, gave an aſtoniſhing extent to commerce and an air of grandeur and importance to the occupations of a merchant, which flattered ambition as well as the love of gain. The native natural productions of the country were inſufficient for ſo large a market; it was deficient in articles of luxury and the precious metals. Manufacturing induſtry was therefore called forth, in order to ſupply materials for commerce; and every new invention of mechanical genius found liberal ſupport and encouragement from the great number of people who had acquired wealth. The Engliſh government, favourable to liberty and to every exertion of ge-

nius

nius, has provided by wiſe and equitable laws for the ſecure enjoyment of propeity acquired by ingenuity and labour, and has removed obſtacles to induſtry, by prohibiting the importation of ſuch articles from abroad which could be manufactuied at home. Next to the woollen manufactory, that of cotton is the moſt conſiderable, as it is reckoned to employ in the northein and middle counties not leſs than 500,000 peiſons, women and childıen included.

Among the advantages the Britiſh iſlands are poſſeſſed of, with reſpect to navigation, the following aıe worthy of attention: the great extent of the coaſts, the ſea-line of which, including both Grèat-Britain and Iıeland, extends near 3800 miles, whereas the ſea-coaſt of France has but 1000 miles; the neighbourhood to the continent; the number of excellent haı bours; the number of navigable canals which form a communication between the ſea-ports on the eaſteın and weſtern coaſts of England.

• The conſtant increaſe of this immenſe commerce is indeed aſtoniſhing, eſpecially during the late war, which ended in the loſs of the American colonies. In the years 1783 and 1784, the ſhips cleared outwaıds, amount-

ing to 950,000 tons, exceed the number of tonsof the ſhips employed 24 years ago (1760) by upwards of 400,000 tons. The value of the cargoes exported in 1784, amounted to upwards of 15,000,000l. ſterling; and the net cuſtoms paid for them into the Exchequer were upwards of 3,000,000l. ſterling; and even this ſum was exceeded the following year, 1785, by upwards of 1,000,000l. ſterling. (See Account of the net Produce of all the Taxes, from Jan. 1784-1785 and 1785-1786.)

The balance of trade in favour of England is eſtimated by ſome authors at 3,000,000l. ſterling. Far more conſiderable is the inland trade, valued at upwards of 42,000,000l. ſterling.—As the quantity of circulating ſpecie may in ſome meaſure indicate the extent of commerce, we may judge of the increaſe of the latter, by comparing the ſums which the three laſt monarchs found neceſſary to coin. By George I. 8,725,921 l. ſterling were coined. In the long reign of George II. 11,966,576l. ſterl. and in the firſt 24 years of his preſent majeſty's reign, the ſums coined amounted to 33,089,274l. ſterling. (Chalmer.)

The

The coaſting trade is ſaid to give employment to about 100,000 people; but this number ſeems to be exaggerated. Yet ſome branches of the fiſheries require a great number of hands. About 10,000 people are employed in the oyſter-fiſhery along the coaſts of England. (Sinclair.) On the coaſtsof Scotland great fiſheries are carried on; there have been ſometimes upwards of 300 veſſels employed in the herring-fiſhery. About 40,000 tons of herrings are annually imported into the port of Yarmouth by 1100 veſſels; the whole annual quantity of ſalt-herrings and cured pilchards amounts to 150,000 tons. (Taube.) From Newfoundland there have been carried to foreign markets 591,276 quintals of fiſh in 1785; this fiſhery is another great nurſery of ſeamen. The Engliſh whale-fiſhery on the coaſts of Greenland employs more ſhips than are ſent thither for the ſame purpoſe by the Dutch.

By far the moſt important part of foreign commerce is carried on by privileged trading companies, among which the Eaſt-India Company is the moſt diſtinguiſhed, by its very brilliant and extraordinary ſucceſs, and by its influence on the general intereſts of the whole empire. It dates its origin from the time

time of queen Elizabeth; its progreſs was for a long time gradual and diſputed by a rival company, with which it was at length incorporated, and obtained the ſanction of parliament for an excluſive trade to the Eaſt-Indies and China, for a limited number of years, in conſideration of a large ſum advanced to the public. Theſe privileges were afterwards renewed. Within theſe laſt thirty years the company has made vaſt territorial acquiſitions in India, which increaſed in an extraordinary manner the trade, power, and importance of this company. Its trade employs 110 ſhips and about 8000 men; the articles exported to Aſia conſiſt in woollens of all ſorts, bullion, hardware, lead, and quickſilver; the imports in gold, diamonds, raw ſilk, ſpices, tea, ſaltpetre, arrack, and China porcelaine. The revenues of the company are ſaid to amount to upwards of 3,000,000l. ſterling annually; but the expence of governing and defending their acquiſitions; the wars in which they are often involved, and the peculations of their ſervants, have been very great drawbacks upon their profits. The affairs of the Eaſt-India Company are under the management of 24 directors, reſiding in England,

and chosen by the court of proprietors of East-India stock. The directors formerly appointed their servants abroad; but the conduct of these servants, and the large dominions acquired by the company, extending upwards of 280,000 square miles, and containing 30 millions of inhabitants, rendered an alteration in the constitution of this great commercial body, and the interference of government in its affairs, necessary. An act of parliament, passed in 1773, among other regulations, gave the presidency of Bengal a superiority over the other presidencies in India, vested the right of nominating a governor-general in the crown, and established a court of justice in India. Yet this regulation was found insufficient to answer the intended purposes, and to repress the enormous abuses committed by the company's servants. After the failure of Mr. Fox's plan for the government of the East-India Company in 1783, an act of parliament passed in 1784, which established a board of controul in England, to be nominated by the crown, which was calculated to connect the civil and military government in India with that over the whole empire, to superintend the regulations and orders made by

the directors of the company, and to call the conduct of its ſervants to account. Time muſt ſhew, whether the proviſions of Mr. Pitt's bill will be an adequate cure of the evils which have affected the proſperity and ſtability of this extraordinary commercial ſociety.

The Levant Company is at preſent of no great conſequence, as the trade to the Levant has been laid open, and as the French have acquired a great ſuperiority in the commerce of the Mediterranean.

The South-Sea Company is only nominally a commercial company; it is rather an incorporated ſocicty of ſtockholders, to whom government is indebted. Its affairs are managed by a governor, two ſub-governors, and one and twenty directors.

The Hudſon's-Bay Company carries on an extenſive trade in peltry with very conſiderable profits: but in all probability its intereſts will be materially affected by the ſeparation of the American colonies from the mother-country, and by the late commercial ſchemes of the French in the Pacific Ocean, eſpecially between Kamtſhatka and North-America.

It is to be lamented, that the African trade, which formerly was in the hands of a particular company, is now ſo much on the decline, as it is very probable, from late enquiries, that this branch of commerce, under the management of well-informed and prudent directors, might be carried to a degree of importance exceeding even the national benefits derived from the Eaſt-Indies.

The Bank of England was incorporated in 1694; this company deals, by the ſanction of parliament, in bills of exchange, it buys and ſells bullion, and manages government annuities paid at its office. The credit of this company is the moſt extenſive of any company in Europe. It is one of the principal creditors of the nation; and the value of the ſhares in its ſtock runs very high. There are beſides eight inſurance companies in England, and two loan banks at Edinburgh.

GOVERN-

GOVERNMENT.

THE government of Great-Britain may be called a limited monarchy. It is a happy combination of a monarchical and popular government. The king has, or at leaſt is underſtood to have only the executive power; the legiſlative is ſhared by him and the parliament, or more properly ſpeaking, by the people. Notwithſtanding the limitations of regal power provided by the conſtitution, the prerogative of the king is ſtill very great. In conſequence of poſſeſſing the executive power of the ſtate, he appoints his privy-council and his miniſters, by whom the national buſineſs is to be carried on; he has the right of calling together and diſſolving the parliament; he can withhold his aſſent from any bill which has paſſed both houſes, and by that means prevent it from paſſing into a law; his perſon is ſacred and inviolable; he cannot, in the eye of the law, do wrong, but the blame of his meaſures falls always on his miniſters and adviſers; he nominates all the great officers of

the ſtate and church; he confers honours, dignities, and titles, eſpecially that of the peerage; he pardons criminals; he is the ſupreme commander of the army and navy, and the head of the church. His income is very ample, amounting annually to 900,cool ſterling.

The crown is hereditary; both male and female deſcendants are capable of ſucceſſion. By a fundamental law the king muſt profeſs the Proteſtant religion.

The legiſlative power belongs to the king and parliament, or the great ſenate of the nation. This parliament is compoſed of the peers and commons, and divided into two aſſemblies, called the Houſe of Lords and the Houſe of Commons. The Houſe of Lords is compoſed, 1. Of the temporal peers, or the hereditary nobility of the kingdom of England, diſtinguiſhed by the different ranks of dukes, marquiſes, earls, viſcounts, and barons; who have by birthright or creation a ſeat in the Houſe of Lords, and are hereditary counſellors of the king. 2. Of the ſpiritual lords, or the two archbiſhops and 24 biſhops of England, who have ſeats in the houſe by virtue of their dignities.

dignities. 3. Of 16 Scotch peers, the repreſentatives of the peerage of Scotland. The Houſe of Commons is compoſed of ſuch perſons of fortune and intereſt as are choſen repreſentatives for the ſeveral counties, cities, and boroughs of the kingdom. The number of theſe repreſentatives is 558, choſen in the following manner:

For the 40 counties of England, two members for each ——	80
For the 12 counties of Wales, one for each —— ——	12
For the counties of Scotland —	30
For the cities in England ——	50
For the boroughs in England —	339
For the two univerſities ——	4
For the cinque ports ——	16
For the boroughs of Wales ——	12
For the boroughs of Scotland —	15
	558

This plan of repreſentation, founded on the ancient ſtate of the kingdom, is at preſent liable to many objections. Among the places which are repreſented in parliament,

there are many which were formerly flourishing, but which are at present sunk into insignificance; and many towns, now opulent and populous, which at that time were not yet risen into consequence, have not acquired the right of sending representatives. Several boroughs are become private property; in others the number of electors is very small, and of course easily influenced by powerful individuals; so that upon the whole the representation is very unequal and defective: but its present state is so nearly connected with the rights of private property and the interest of the great families, that it is a very difficult matter to render it equal and independant. The duration of parliaments is at present extended to seven years, after the expiration of which a new general election of representatives takes place. Many of those who are zealous for the rights of the people wish to shorten the septennial parliaments, because experience teaches that they give too much influence to the crown over the members, and diminish that of the constituents over their representatives. To be chosen a representative certain qualifications are necessary, as the possession of landed property

perty of the annual value of 300l. if it be for a borough, and of 500l. a year if it be for a county. No foreigner, though naturalized, can be chosen a member of the House of Commons. In the House of Lords the lord chancellor presides; in the House of Commons an elective president, called the Speaker. Any member of either house has the right of bringing in a bill; which, before it can pass into an act of parliament, and obtain the force of a law, must be agreed to by a majority of both houses, and afterwards receive the assent of the king. Bills relating to taxation, revenue, and its administration, originate always in the House of Commons, who, by the invaluable privilege of granting or refusing supplies, have the power of promoting or stopping any measure of government: the Commons have likewise the privilege, that none of their money bills can be altered or amended by the Lords. The upper house of parliament have the supreme judicial authority in the state, to which appeals may be made from the decisions of the courts of Westminster. The power of parliament is the highest in the state, and is unlimited; it has even

altered

altered more than once the eſtabliſhed religion, and the order of ſucceſſion to the crown.

In conſequence of the mixed character of the Engliſh conſtitution, there have been, ſince the time of the Stuarts, two parties in the nation of oppoſite political principles; one of which favours the power of the crown, and the other the democratical, or ariſtocratical power in the conſtitution. They were originally diſtinguiſhed by the names of Cavaliers and Roundheads, afterwards they were called Tories and Whigs, and at preſent the Court party and the Oppoſition. The conduct of theſe parties, when properly applied, is beneficial to the [illegible] their diſſenſions muſt often [illegible] views, diſappointed ambition, [illegible] for power: yet, notwithſtanding the miſchiefs of party, the influence which the king has over the parliament, by his conſtitutional prerogative, and the numerous favours and rewards he has it in his power to beſtow, is exceedingly great.

Beſides the parliament, the king has the aſſiſtance of his miniſters, or privy-counſellors,

fellors, nominated by himſelf, and reſponſible for their advice and conduct. Among theſe privy-counſellors are the great officers of the ſtate, who hold their places during the king's pleaſure, and who retain the dignity of privy-counſellors, though removed from their offices. The offices of Lord Chamberlain and Earl Marſhal are hereditary to the ducal families of Ancaſter and Norfolk. Among the privy-counſellors, thoſe miniſters who compoſe the cabinet are the principal; the Lord Chancellor, the firſt Lord of the Treaſury, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and he is at the ſame time the Treaſury, is conſidered the two Secretaries of ſtate, northern and ſouthern department, to which muſt be added the Lord of the Admiralty: theſe are preſidents of the principal ſtate departments. Scotland has its own officers of ſtate and courts of juſtice.

The adminiſtration of juſtice in England is, as it may be expected in a conſtitution ſo favourable to liberty, famous for its fairneſs, independence, and impartiality. The laws of

England

England have been leaſt of any influenced by the Roman laws, the admiſſion of which the nation has firmly oppoſed. They are divided into the unwritten, or common law, and the ſtatute law: the firſt is not founded on any known act of the legiſlature, but tranſmitted down by tradition. Its principles are collected from the judgments which have paſſed according to it, from time immemorial, and which are carefully preſerved under the name of records. Its legal force is, probably, founded on acts of parliament, prior to the reign of Richard I. the originals of which are now loſt. The written, or ſtatute law, is the collection of acts of parliament, the originals of which have been preſerved, eſpecially ſince the time of Edward III. The chief courts of common law are, 1. the Court of King's Bench, 2. the Court of Common Pleas, and 3. the Court of Exchequer; each of theſe courts has four judges, who cannot be deprived of their places, but on an accuſation by parliament. To obtain legal remedy in caſes to which the juriſdiction of the common law courts did not extend, the courts of equity have been added, viz. the Court of Chancery.

under

under the Lord High Chancellor, and the Court of Exchequer Chamber. In important and difficult cauſes, the twelve judges, joined ſometimes by the Lord Chancellor, meet to deliberate on the judgments paſſed in the courts. There are, beſides many provincial and ſubordinate courts, the eccleſiaſtical courts, the courts martial, and admiralty court; into the three latter, the principles and proceedings of the Roman law have been admitted. From all courts of juſtice appeals can be made to the Houſe of Lords, the higheſt judicial tribunal in the kingdom.

It is chiefly in the criminal judicature that the laws of England differ ſo greatly and ſo honourably from thoſe of other countries. When a perſon is charged with a crime, he is firſt examined by a magiſtrate, who may diſcharge him if the accuſation ſhould be evidently futile or falſe; but if it appears to have ſufficient weight, he binds the party to give bail for his appearance to anſwer to the charge; and, in capital caſes, he commits him to priſon. Before the party is brought to a trial, the accuſation undergoes a ſecond diſcuſſion by the grand jury of the county, conſiſting of more than 12, and leſs than 24,

perſons

perſons of character and reſpectability; if twelve or more of them are of opinion that the charge is well grounded, the priſoner is indicted. He is then brought to the bar of the court to take his trial, in a public manner, before the judge and petty jury. The latter is compoſed of twelve impartial perſons of the ſame rank with the priſoner, any of whom, as far as twenty perſons ſucceſſively, the priſoner may challenge, if he has any objection to be tried by them; and this jury are finally to judge the priſoner, according to the evidence produced in the trial. When the jury have taken their oaths, the indictment is read to the priſoner, who pleads either guilty, or not guilty, to it. In the firſt caſe, no trial is neceſſary; in the other, the evidence of the witneſſes, who are on their oath, is produced in preſence of the priſoner, who is allowed to queſtion them himſelf, or by his counſel, and to bring witneſſes in his defence. When the evidence is before the court, the judge, in a ſpeech, ſums it up, points out the preciſe ſtate of the queſtion, and gives his opinion concerning the evidence and the point of law. By this opinion the jury are no further bound

than

than as it coincides with their own; and they agree among themſelves on the deciſion or verdict which they are to give, and which muſt be unanimous; it is either that the priſoner is guilty, or not guilty, of the fact of which he ſtands accuſed: if they acquit him, he is immediately diſcharged from priſon; if he is found guilty, the judge pronounces the ſentence of the law incurred by the crime, and the priſoner is ſent back to priſon till the ſentence is put in execution. If any extenuating circumſtances appear in the trial, the jury may recommend the convict to mercy; and the king has the power either to grant him a free pardon, or to mitigate the rigour of his puniſhment.

Such are the proceedings of criminal juſtice in England, which manifeſt the greateſt attention to the liberty and life of the ſubject, which remove every fear of oppreſſion from the pooreſt and weakeſt, and which give innocence the faireſt chance of vindicating itſelf from unjuſt and malicious accuſation.

The laws of Scotland are different from thoſe of England; and they partake much more of the principles and forms of the civil law. The trial by jury in Scotland may, perhaps,

perhaps, be conſidered as an improvement on that mode of trial: it differs from that in England, by requiring only a majority of two-thirds, not a unanimity of the jury, in order to give a deciſive verdict.

The government of Ireland reſembles, in every reſpect, that of Great-Britain, with which it has now no other connexion than that of being ſubject to the ſame king. Ireland has its own parliament, framed on the ſame plan with the Britiſh; its officers of ſtate, courts of juſtice, &c. but it is protected by the Britiſh army and navy.

FINANCES.

14,500,000 to 15,000,000 l. ſterling.

In 1785, the produce of the taxes amounted to 15,397,471 l. viz.

1. Land and malt tax		2,600,000 l.
2. Cuſtoms	—	4,586,463
3. Exciſe	——	5,392,642
4. Stamps	——	1,162,695

5. Inci-

5. Incidents, as taxes on houſes, windows, ſervants, horſes, &c. ——— 1,358,115

Some deductions are to be made for extraordinary articles, which were paid only this year.

From many regulations lately adopted, and from the proſperous ſtate of commerce in general, it is probable that the revenue will ſtill increaſe. On this proſpect, an act of parliament has been paſſed, in 1786, directing that one million of the ſurplus ſhould be annually applied towards diminiſhing the national debt. The proportion of the ſhare of the land and malt tax, which is paid by Scotland, to the ſhare paid by England, is as one to 40; all the other taxes are the ſame in Scotland as in England.

The annual expenditure of Great-Britain conſiſts chiefly in the following articles:

1. The peace eſtabliſhment of the army, navy, and ordnance, eſtimated at about 4,000,000l. ſterling.

2. The civil liſt, or the king's revenue, 900,000 l.

3. Extraordinary expences for miſcellaneous ſervices, parliamentary grants, &c.

4. Intereſt of the national debt.

The national debt amounted, at the beginning of 1786, to 239,154,879 l.

The intereſt and other charges of this ſum to 9,266,940 l.

For the current year (1787) the expenditure amounts to 6,676,000 l. including the annual million, and ſome extraordinary articles; for inſtance, the making good uncommon deficiencies of the taxes of laſt year; this added to the intereſt of the national debt, which is now 9,275,769 l. makes the whole expenditure amount to 15,951,769 l.

REPORT

1.	Total net payments into the Exchequer, from January 5, 1785, to January 5, 1786,		£. 12,499,916
	Deduct therefrom the reſpited duties paid by the Eaſt-India Company	£. 401,118	
	Exceſs beyond the future amount of the window duties	56,101	457,219
			£. 12,042,697
2.	Further produce of the window duty, impoſed by the 24th Geo. III.		253,534
3.	Further produce of the duty on two-wheel and four-wheel carriages		107,186
4.	To compleat the former duty on male ſervants		42,444
5.	Further produce of the duties on horſes, waggons, and carts		73,610
6.	——————— taxes impoſed in 1784		22,000
7.	——————— taxes impoſed in 1785, including the improvement of the medicine duty		242,000
8.	Paid at the Exciſe and Alienation Office, in part of civil liſt		14,000
9.	Produce of the land and malt		2,600,000
			15,397,471

EXPENDITURE.

10.	Intereſt and charges of the public debts	£. 9,275,769	
11.	Exchequer bills	258,000	
12.	Civil liſt	900,000	
13.	Charges on the aggregate fund	64,600	
14.	Navy	1,800,000	
15.	Army	1,600,000	
16.	Ordnance	348,000	
17.	Militia	91,000	
18.	Miſcellaneous ſervices	74,274	
19.	Appropriated duties	66,538	
		14,478,181	14,478,181
	Annual ſurplus		£. 919,290

Revenue of Ireland.

Upwards of 1,000,000 l. ſterling, and the public expenditure amounts to nearly the ſame ſum.

State of the Revenue in the year ending March 25, 1784 (from Lord Sheffield.)

1. Groſs amount of the hereditary revenue	——	£.659,826
2. —— of the additional duties	——	382,352
3. —— of the ſtamp duties	——	34,580
4. Balances in the Collector's hands	——	253,121
		1,329,880

Deducting the charges of management and drawbacks, the neat produce of the three firſt articles was 791,421 l. beſides the produce of new taxes, the ſurplus of the loan duties and ſeveral balances.

Expen-

Expenditure in the ſame Year.

Civil liſt ——	£. 174,918
Military eſtabliſhment	429,686
Charges purſuant to acts of parliament, &c. ——	493,579
	1,098,184
Average expenditure of ten years, ending March 25, 1771	£. 792,664
The national debt amounted, in 1784, to ——	2,131,625
The intereſt of which, and other charges, were —	134,877
Produce of the loan duties appropriated to pay this intereſt	185,218
Which leaves a ſurplus of	50,000

ARMY.

In time of peace about 40,000 men.

CAVALRY.

Horſe Guards, 2 troops.
Horſe Grenadier Guards, 2 troops.

Royal regiment of Horſe Guards.
4 regiments of Horſe.
3 regiments of Dragoon Guards.
6 regiments of Dragoons.
13 regiments of Light Dragoons.

INFANTRY.

3 regiments of Foot Guards.
73 regiments of Foot.
Artillery regiment in England.
——————————— Ireland.
Engineers in England.
——————— Ireland.
Marines.
Invalids.

In time of peace, moſt regiments conſiſt of only one battalion, compoſed of ten companies; in time of war additional companies are raiſed, and the number of regiments increaſed. The whole of the army laſt war, including the foreign troops in Engliſh pay, amounted to about 135,000 men. Twelve regiments of cavalry, and 20 of infantry, are uſually in Ireland, and are maintained by that kingdom, amounting to about 12,000 to 14,000 men: for the ſervice

vice of Great-Britain, the garriſons, and colonies, about 17,000 men are voted annually by parliament, excluſive of marines.

A militia of about 40,000 men.

NAVY.

Ships in and out of commiſſion, building, &c. (Royal Kalendar, 1787).

Ships of the line	—	157
Fifties	———	19
Frigates	———	143
Sloops	———	128
Total		447

Ships actually in commiſſion, in 1786, as guard-ſhips in the principal ports, and on the ſeveral ſtations, the Channel, North Seas, Weſt-Indies, America, Eaſt-Indies, Africa, and the Mediterranean, fitting out, &c.

Ships of the line	—	12
Frigates	———	27
Sloops	———	69

Uſual complement in time of peace, voted by parliament, 18,000 ſeamen, including about 3,500 marines.

The principal ports of the navy are Portſmouth, Plymouth, and Chatham, where there are excellent dock-yards.

In times of war, as in 1782, the ſhips fit for actual ſervice were, (Admiralty Liſt)

Ships of the line	—	114
Fifties	———	11
Frigates	———	111
Sloops	———	42
Guard ſhips	—	24
Total		302

The whole of the fleet carried upwards of 20,000 guns, and was manned by 116,546 ſeamen.

RELIGION.

THE eſtabliſhed religion in that part of Great-Britain called England, is the epiſcopal church of England, a particular branch of proteſtantiſm, which in its liturgy, and ſtill more in its government, differs from the continental proteſtant churches. It has preſerved much more of the ancient hierarchy of

of the Roman Catholic church, together with its dignities and jurisdiction. The king is the head of the church, but he has no ſpiritual powers; he has the right of calling together and diſſolving the convocation, or eccleſiaſtical parliament, by which the church was formerly governed, but which has, for many years paſt, not been allowed to meet. England is divided into two eccleſiaſtical provinces, that of Canterbury and York: the archbiſhop of Canterbury, who is primate of England, has 21 biſhoprics belonging to his province; and three biſhoprics are under the archbiſhop of York. All theſe prelates are lords of parliament, in which they repreſent the clergy; they have their ſeats in the Houſe of Lords. There is, beſides, the biſhop of Sodor and Man, belonging to the province of York, who has no ſeat in the Houſe of Peers. The other dignitaries of the church are the deans and prebendaries of the chapters, archdeacons, and rural deans; the inferior clergy conſiſt of prieſts and deacons, who, according to the church benefices they occupy, are called rectors, vicars, and curates of pariſhes.

The

The revenues of the church of England are large; the preſent value of the ſees and livings is ſuppoſed to amount to 3,000,000l. ſterling. This income ariſes chiefly from the tythes, the value of which increaſes with the improvements of lands.

All other denominations of Chriſtians, called Diſſenters and Jews, are very liberally tolerated. Thoſe Proteſtants who are moſt ſtrictly Calviniſts in doctrine and form of eccleſiaſtical government, are called Preſbyterians; their religion is the eſtabliſhed church in Scotland, where the epiſcopal church, and all other religions, are tolerated. There are many other Proteſtant ſects in England, among whom the Unitarians, Anabaptiſts, Quakers, and Methodiſts, are the moſt conſpicuous. The number of Roman Catholics in England is eſtimated at 60,000; they have about 350 prieſts; ſome peers of the kingdom, and ſeveral other ancient and opulent families belong to that communion; whoſe exerciſe of religion is under gentle reſtrictions; their number is ſaid to be decreaſing. There are about 60,000 Quakers and 12,000 Jewiſh families. The numerous French and German inhabitants in London

form ſeveral Lutheran and Calviniſtical pariſhes.

The eſtabliſhed religion in Ireland is the ſame with that in England: the Iriſh church is governed by four archbiſhops and eighteen biſhops. By far the greater part of the Iriſh nation (four-fifths according to Lord Sheffield) are Roman Catholics, and are, conſequently, excluded from all places of truſt and profit: their clergy is numerous, and their chiefs take the titular dignities from thoſe dioceſes in which they reſide.

GENERAL REMARKS.

IF the citizen of that ſtate is to be eſteemed moſt happy, where the legiſlature has been moſt attentive to the rights and liberties of each individual, where property is enjoyed with the moſt ample ſecurity, where the ſubject, who ſupports his rulers by his induſtry, and defends them with his life and fortune, has a proportionate ſhare in the government, where even the tranſgreſſor of the

the laws is ſure of being treated with fairneſs and indulgence, and where the juſt puniſhment inflicted on criminals does not entail ignominy and ruin on his innocent family, we cannot heſitate to aſſign the firſt rank of ſocial happineſs to the inhabitants of the Britiſh iſlands. It is in this country alone that each individual is properly reſpected as man and citizen, whatever may be his ſituation with reſpect to rank and fortune: the meaneſt has equal claim with the higheſt to the protection of the laws; and if he ſuffers any wrong by the oppreſſion of thoſe in power, his fellow citizens are ſure to make his cauſe their common cauſe. This ſtate of ſociety, however promoted by fortunate accidents, does honour to the nation which arrived at it, and does honour to human reaſon: its advantages can never be too much extolled, nor too carefully preſerved. Yet there exiſt, even in this ſtate, ſeveral evils frequently complained of, and as often exaggerated: ſuch are the bribery made uſe of to carry on public meaſures and parliamentary elections, the great expenſe and long duration of lawſuits, the badneſs of police, eſpecially in the capital, the diſproportion of puniſhments to

the

the criminality of offences, the great number of unfortunate offenders either put to death or loſt to the ſtate, an evil chiefly occaſioned by the neglect of education, and the immorality of the lower claſſes. Few of theſe faults can be ſaid to reſult from the nature of the conſtitution, but they muſt be attributed to the relaxation of patriotiſm and public principle, brought on by the prevalence of luxury and extravagance: they ſhew that no leſs ſpirit and virtue is required to preſerve than to eſtabliſh an excellent form of government; and that where ſo much has been done, it ſhould never be thought that there was no room for further improvement. The nature of our political ſyſtem can extend ſo far as abſolutely to prevent any abuſe, which bad men may make of it: yet notwithſtanding theſe faults, partially felt, and in a great meaſure open to redreſs; notwithſtanding the load of taxes under which induſtry groans, and which are the conſequence of expenſive wars and political errors, the Engliſh nation will be happier than any other while it preſerves its excellent conſtitution. It is not my intention to make an invidious compariſon with thoſe of other countries, or to impute it as a

fault

fault to other nations, that they have not been able to eſtabliſh a ſimilar one among themſelves: to effect ſo great a work, ſo many favourable events, and ſo many advantages of ſituation, muſt concur with the energy of national character, that this concurrence cannot be expected to happen often. I wiſh only to expreſs my conviction, that the nature of the Engliſh conſtitution is able to render a greater number of individuals happy than any other, and that the preſent ſtate of this conſtitution is leſs perverted from its original tendency to benefit a nation than any other government. A long experience has ſhewn what ſuperiority of activity, power, and wealth, may be produced by ſuch a conſtitution in the nation which experiences its bleſſings. Though the inhabitants of England are not diſtinguiſhed by ſuperior vigour of body or of mind from the natives of France, Germany, and Italy, and though the natural riches of this iſland fall ſhort of thoſe beſtowed on other parts of Europe, yet the certainty of entire and permanent poſſeſſion of property, and the enjoyment of liberty and ſecurity, has produced that admirable height of agriculture, manufacturing

induſtry,

induſtry, commerce and opulence, which is now the boaſt of England. A nearer equality, and a more intimate connexion and mutual regard of the different ranks of ſociety, reſults naturally from this conſtitution; and this ſenſe of equal rights inſpires, even in the earlieſt parts of life, a certain confidence, which aſſiſts the development of the underſtanding, and is excellently calculated to preſerve the vigour of the national character.

I am ſorry that the plan of this work does not permit me to dwell longer on an object ſo pleaſing; indeed the moſt intereſting object which the ſurvey of Europe can afford, and the friend of mankind can enjoy.

There is, however, great reaſon to hope, that the political oppreſſion, and thoſe prejudices of princes which have degraded, and ſtill degrade ſome nations of Europe, will gradually give way to reaſon and example. The happineſs of England, and in an inferior degree, that of Holland, teaches other nations, and obliges their ſovereigns to learn, that the happineſs of their ſtates, and, conſequently, their own power and greatneſs, cannot be better enſured than by carefully

protecting

protecting property, and allowing man to enjoy the rights and the regard to which he is entitled by nature.

If it is true that England's political or relative ſtrength is diminiſhed by the loſs of America, it is the more to be wondered at, that it is able to preſerve its former credit unimpaired. It ſeems, however, evident, that England, if a war ſhould ſhortly take place, would ſuffer a great diminution, if not the ruin, of its power and credit. If the pending commercial treaty with France produces no other advantage but a certain continuance of peace for a conſiderable number of years, England is ſo great a gainer by that proſpect, that it may ſubmit chearfully to every inconvenience and loſs which may poſſibly ariſe from it. The whole extent of theſe diſadvantages cannot yet be calculated with any accuracy. France, however, is a neighbour ſo much the more to be dreaded, as by its connexion with Spain, its influence in Holland, and its alliances in Germany, it has been able to provide for its own ſecurity, and to engage powerful aſſiſtance.

With reſpect to the ſtate of knowledge and ſcience, England is entitled to an eminent

nent rank among the firſt nations of Europe. It muſt, however, be owned, that its ſuperiority with reſpect to ſciences was more conſpicuous in the beginning of the preſent century than now; though it has, upon the whole, not gone backwards in the ſciences, it has not been able, amidſt the great exertions of other countries, to leave them behind at the ſame diſtance. England has but two univerſities, or rather collections of univerſities, at Oxford and Cambridge, in which the wealth and ſplendor of the foundations is deſerving of admiration, and is a proof of the eſtimation in which learning has always been held in this country. It cannot be denied that theſe univerſities, though gradually much reformed, preſerve ſtill too much of the ſpirit of the age of Alfred, and that they have loſt, long ago, the lead in ſcience and national literature, which is at preſent transferred to the metropolis. Scotland has four univerſities, thoſe of Edinburgh, Glaſgow, Aberdeen and St. Andrews, which reſemble the univerſities on the continent, eſpecially thoſe in Germany. Ireland has but one univerſity, conſiſting of one college, at Dublin. Schools are very numerous in England:

beſides ſome colleges of ancient foundation, there are many private ſchools and academies. As government does not in the leaſt concern itſelf in the education of youth, any perſon, however qualified, is at liberty to open a ſchool, a liberty which does often a great deal of miſchief. The lower claſſes of people are much neglected in their education, and much more ſo in England than in Scotland. To this ſource of corruption we muſt trace the frequency of crimes, equally injurious to the proſperity and glory of this great nation; an evil which is conſtantly increaſing, and which the horrors of Newgate and Botany Bay will not be able to counteract. The zeal of many well-meaning perſons, in eſtabliſhing charitable inſtitutions of education, called Sunday ſchools, is very laudable; and it is to be hoped theſe and other charity ſchools will be improved into permanent and effectual remedies of the evil beforementioned.

London has, beſides the Royal Society of Sciences, an Antiquarian Society, a Society for promoting Arts and Manufactures, an Academy of Painting and Sculpture, a grand collection of natural curioſities, books, and MSS. called the Britiſh Muſeum. Oxford and Cambridge

TABLE XI.

FRANCE.

AUTHORITIES.

1. ETAT de la France, par le Comte de Boulainvilliers, 1752.
2. Moheau Recherches ſur la Population de la France, 1778.
3. Eſſai ſur la derniere Revolution de l'Ordre Civil en France, 1782.
4. Nouvelles Recherches ſur la France, Ouvrage qui peut ſervir de Supplement à l'état de la France de Boulainvilliers, par M. Piganiol, 1766, 2 tomes.
5. Maximes du droit Public François, &c. à Amſterdam, 1775, 2 tomes.
6. Compte rendu au Roi, par M. Necker. 1781. 4to.
7. A Treatiſe on the Adminiſtration of the Finances of France, by M. Neckar, tranſlated by T. Mortimer. 1786. 3 vols.

8. Etat

8. Etat Militaire de la France pour l'année 1785, par Rouſſel.
9. Marine de France, d'Eſpagne, & de l'Angleterre. 1783.
10. Queſtions ſur le Commerce des François au Levant. Marſeille, 1755.
11. Tucker's brief Eſſay on the Advantages and Diſadvantages which reſpectively attend France and Great-Britain with regard to Trade. Lond. 1787.

TABLE XI.

EXTENT and DIVISIONS.	Areas in ſquare miles.	Population.	Num. of Inhabitants on each ſquare mile.	TOWNS.
42°——51° Latitude 5°——8° Eaſt Longitude	163,200 St. Ueb. 160,000 Buſch. 157,924 Necker.	25,300,000 Schloez. 26,000,000 Buſ. 24,800,000 Necker.	150 162 157	400 Cities. 1500 Smaller Towns. 43,000 Pariſhes. 100,000 Villages.
France (without Corſica) — —	155,332 Necker.	24,676,000 Necker.	160	
Generalities according to Necker.				Names. Num. Inh.
1. Aix — — — —	6,601 ——	754,400 ——	41	Marſeille — 80,500
Provence				Aix —— 24,000
				Toulon —— 28,000
2. Amiens — — —	2,638 ——	533,000 ——	71	Amiens —— 43,500
The greateſt part of Picardie				Calais —— 6,500
				Abbeville — 19,000
				St. Quentin — 10,500
3. Auch and Pau — —	7,761 3/5 ——	813,000 ——	40	Auch —— 7,500
Oriental part of Guienne				Pau —— 9,000
4. Beſançon — — —	5,019 4/5 ——	678,800 ——	49	Beſançon — 25,500
Franche Comte — — —				
5. Bourdeaux and Bayonne — —	9,562 1/5 ——	439,000 ——	55	Bourdeaux — 84,000
Weſtern part of Guienne				Bayonne — 11,000
6. Bourges — — —	3,954 1/5 ——	512,500 ——	47	Bourges —— 25,000
Berry and two little diſtricts, one in the province of Bourbonnois, the other in that of Nivernois				

TABLE XI. continued.

EXTENT and DIVISIONS.	Areas in square miles.	Population.	Num. of Inhabitants on each square mile	TOWNS.
7. Chalons — — — — The greateſt part of Champagne and part of Brie	7,063 1/5	812,800 —	44	Rheims — 31,000 Chalons — 12,000 Troyes — 32,000
8. Dijon — — — — Bourgogne, Maçonnois. Gex, Bugey Breſſe, Dombe	6,821 1/5	087,300 —	57	Dijon — 20,300 Maçon — 9.000
9. Grenoble — — — — Orange, Dauphiné	5,898 1/5	664,600 —	40	Grenoble — 24,300
10. La Rochelle — — — — Saintonge, Aunis, part of Angoumois	2 6-	479,700 —	64	La Rochelle — 16,000 Rochefort — 16,000
11. Lille — — — — Artois, and almoſt the whole of Flanders	2,38-1/2	734,600 —	110	Lille — 67,000 Dunkirk — 27,000 Arras — 21,500 Douay — 19,500
12 Limoges — — — — Limouſin, and the greateſt part of Angoumois	4,919	646,500 —	47	Limoges — 22,000 Angouleme — 13,000
13 Lyon — — — — Lyonnois, Forez, Beaujolois	2,197 1/2	633,600 —	95	Lyon — 160,000 St. Etienne — 27,000
14 Metz — — — — Metz, Toul Verdun, the French Luxembourg, Sedan, Raucour, and ſome diſtricts of Alſace and Lorraine	2,960 3/5	349,300 —	119	Metz — 40,000 Sedan — 17 500
15 Montauban — — — — Rouergue and Guercy	3,362 1/5	530,200 —	160	Montauban — 20,000 Cahors — above 9000

TABLE XI. Continued.

EXTENT and DIVISIONS.	Areas in ſquare miles.	Population.	Num. of Inhabitants on each ſquare mile.	TOWNS.
16. Montpelier — — — Languedoc	12,330$\frac{3}{5}$	699,200	138	Montpellier — 32,000 Toulouſe — 56,000 Nimes — 50,000
17. Moulins — — — Bourbonnois, the greateſt part of Nivernois, and a ſmall part of Auvergne	5,166$\frac{3}{5}$	564,400	109	Moulins — 16,500 Nevers — 14,000
18. Nancy — — — Lorraine, Bar-le-Duc	5,149$\frac{1}{2}$	834,600	162	Nancy — 34,000 Luneville — 16,500 Bar-le-Duc — 10,800
19. Orleans — — — Orleannois, Sologne, Blaiſois, Vendomois, Lower Perche, Dunois, Beauce, Chartres, great part of Gatinois, a ſmall part of Nivernois	5,882$\frac{2}{5}$	709,400	121	Orleans — 34,500 Blois — 12,000
20. Paris — — — The Greateſt part of Iſle de France and la Brie	6,664$\frac{2}{5}$	1,781,700	266	Paris — 680,000 Verſailles — 60,000
21. Perpignan — — — Rouſſillon, Foix	1,649$\frac{2}{5}$	188,900	114	Perpignan — 15,200
22. Poitiers Upper and Lower Poitou	6,289$\frac{1}{4}$	690,500	113	Poitiers — 17,300
23. Rennes — — — Bretagne	10,221	2,276,000	222	Rennes — 35,500 Port l'Orient — 16,500 St. Malo — 17,500 Nantes — 57,000 Breſt — 10,000

TABLE XI. Continued.

EXTENT and DIVISIONS.	Areas in ſquare miles.	Population.	Num. of Inhabitants on each ſquare mile.	TOWNS.
24. Riom — — — —	3,749$\frac{4}{5}$	681,500 —	181	Clermont — 24,000 Riom — 14,800
25. Normandy { Rouen — —	3,384	740,700 —	219	Rouen — 72,500
{ Caen — —	3,361	644,000 —	190	Caen — 32,000
{ Alençon — —	2,672$\frac{1}{5}$	528,300 —	198	Alençon — 13,500 Dieppe — 17,000
26. Soiſſons — — — — Soiſſonnois, Laonnois, Thierache, part of Brie	2,566$\frac{1}{5}$	437,200 —	174	Soiſſons — 7500
27. Straſbourg — — Alſace	3,050$\frac{4}{5}$	626,400 —	205	Straſbourg — 46,000 Colmar — 12,500
28. Tours — — — Touraine, Anjou, Maine, a ſmall part of Lower Poitou	8,096$\frac{1}{5}$	1,338,700 —	165	Tours — 21,600 Angers — 30,000 Le Mans — 13,500
29. Valenciennes Hainault, Cambreſis, and a ſmall part of Flanders	1,481$\frac{3}{5}$	265,200 —	179	Valenciennes — 19,500 Cambrai — 15,000
Total — —	155,333$\frac{1}{2}$	24,676,000 —		
Iſland of Corſica — — —	2,592	124,000 —	48	Baſtia — 6000 Ajaccio — 4000 Corte — 3000

Possessions in the other Parts of the Globe.

1. In *Asia*. Some diſtricts on the coaſt of Coromandel, of which Pondicherry is the capital. Some leſs conſiderable ſettlements on the Malabar coaſt and in Bengal, and ſeveral factories.

2. In *Africa*. In Barbary, Baſtion de France. The iſland of Goree, part of Senegambia, Fort Louis on the Senegal, and Podar, Galam, Portendic, Fort Arguin. On the coaſt of Guinea, Fort François. In the Indian Sea, the iſlands of Bourbon and Iſle de France.

3. In *America*. The North-American iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon. In the Weſt-Indies, the largeſt part of the iſland of St. Domingo, the iſlands of Martinique, Guadaloupe, St. Lucia, Maria Galante, St. Martin and Tobago. In South-America, ſome ſettlements in Guiana and the iſland of Caycinne.

All theſe poſſeſſions contain about 600,000 inhabitants. Necker.

WEALTH AND COMMERCE.

FRANCE is ſituated in a very mild climate; its ſoil is, in moſt parts, very fertile; it is bounded by high ridges of mountains, the lower branches of which croſs the greateſt part of the kingdom; it conſequently abounds with large rivers, 200 of which are navigable, and it is contiguous to two oceans. Theſe united advantages render this kingdom one of the richeſt countries of Europe, both with reſpect to natural productions and commerce. One of the moſt valuable articles of produce is wine, the great ſtaple commodity of France. 1,600,000 acres of ground are laid out in vineyards; and the net profits from each acre are eſtimated at from 4l. to 7l. ſterling. According to other ſtatements, the yearly value of all the wine made in France amounts to 300 millions of livres; and that of the wine exported annually, to 24 millions. (See Adminiſtration provinciale des impots. Baſle, 1780.) The beſt ſorts of French wine are, champaign, burgundy, pontack, muſcat, frontigniac, eremitage, coté roti, &c. of the inferior ſorts brandy

brandy and vinegar is made in large quantities. Vines proſper, though not equally, in almoſt every province of France, except Normandy and Picardy.

Great efforts are making to encourage and improve agriculture; yet there is ſtill a large portion of the ground in an uncultivated ſtate. No more than about 36 millions of acres are cultivated. (Buſching.) France is therefore obliged to import corn. During the adminiſtration of Mr. Necker (ſee *compte rendu*) this diſadvantage was partly obviated; and there are now ſome provinces which export corn, for inſtance, Alſace and Languedoc. Flax and hemp, which is imported from the North, might be more profitably cultivated in the kingdom in larger quantities than hitherto. The ſilk raiſed in conſiderable quantities in ſome provinces does not however ſufficiently ſupply the numerous manufactures; about 200,000 lb. are produced in Languedoc, and not much leſs in Provence. The moſt important ſilk manufactures are at Lyons and Touſs; at the laſt-mentioned place there are ſaid to be 7000 looms, and at the firſt as many as 18,000. This muſt be underſtood however of the times preceding the repeal of the

the Edict of Nantes. By this unjuſt and impolitic meaſure a very great number of Proteſtant manufacturers were expelled the kingdom, and carried their valuable arts to more liberal countries. Next to theſe two cities, thoſe of Paris, Chatillon, and Nimes, are diſtinguiſhed for their ſilk-manufactures. The firſt ſilk-manufacture was eſtabliſhed at Tours by Louis XI. in the year 1470. At the large fairs of Beaucaire there uſed to be ſold, in a few days, goods to the value of 6,000,000 livres, by far the greateſt part of which were ſilks. Even now this trade is of an amazing extent; 7000 balls of ſilk, of 160lb. each, of which however a great part is imported from abroad, are conveyed annually to Lyons.

Olive oil is one of the principal commodities of France; moſt of it is produced in the provinces of Provence and Languedoc. The county of Rouſillon alone gains annually 200,000 livres by this article; the conſumption of it in France is however ſo great, that ſome oil is ſtill imported from Italy. The inferior ſort of oil is uſed in making ſoap; there are at Marſeilles alone thirty-ſix ſoap-manufactures. France abounds in excel-

lent

lent and high-flavoured fruits, as grapes, apples, lemons, oranges, chefnuts, &c. and likewife in manna, faffron, and woad. A great quantity of kermes and foda is produced in the moft foutherly parts. Salt is obtained in great plenty; the duties on this article, though very oppreffive to the fubject, are one of the largeft branches of the revenue: they are farmed at 54 millions of livres annually. The falt however is not remarkable for its purity. The conſumption of tobacco in France amounts to 20 millions of pounds; 15 millions are raiſed in the country, and five millions imported by fmuggling.

Horfes, cattle, and affes, are not remarkably good, except in a few diftricts. The flocks of fheep, though numerous, are not able to fupply the large woollen-manufactures. Picardy, alone, however, produces annually 600,000 lb. of wool; and fo many live fheep have been fmuggled over from England into Normandy and Bretagne, that the flocks of thofe two provinces are thought to be not inferior to thofe of England. By the fame clandeftine traffick Engliſh wool is imported to the value of 100,000l. ſterling.

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(S. Taube.) The French cloth-manufactures are riſen to very great conſequence; the moſt conſiderable among them are thoſe at Amiens, Abbeville, Lyons, Sedan, Paris, Rouen, Ryſſel, &c. In the government of Lyons woollens are manufactured to the value of 13,000,000 livres, two-thirds of which are exported. In Bretagne there are 800 looms for light ſtuffs; the manufactures at Abbeville have conſiderably injured thoſe of England; as have likewiſe thoſe in Languedoc and Provence, eſpecially by their concurrence and ſuperior demand in the Levant market.

The mineral kingdom in France has hitherto not afforded very large treaſures. Some ſilver is found in Alſace, at St. Marie aux mines, and Moncrif; copper and iron, almoſt ſufficient for the demand of the manufactures, is found in Rouſſillon, Bigorre, Foix, Navarre, Gaſcogne, Normandie, Bretagne, and Orleanois. Many of theſe mines contain lead. However, ſteel is imported annually to the value of 3,000,000 livres. Mineralogy has hitherto been in an infant ſtate; but when duly attended to, the mines of France are likely to yield very ample profits. There

There are manufactures of allum, vitriol, and ſaltpetre; in Franche Comté 1,200,000lb. of the latter article are annually obtained.

France has very important fiſheries. About 50,000 tons of herrings are caught annually by the French fiſhermen; the fiſhery of anchovies is ſaid to be worth two million of livres. The French fiſheries on the North-American coaſts were eſtimated, before the year 1744, at 1,000,000l. ſterling; they have ſince decreaſed, but it is likely they will be ſoon worth nearly as much as before, in conſequence of the ceſſions made to France by the peace of 1783. (Lord Sheffield.) In 1768, the French ſent 114 veſſels to Newfoundland, which brought home a cargo of cod, worth 3,000,000 livres; but the profits ariſing from this branch of fiſhery are not very conſiderable.

To enumerate the many manufactures of articles of luxury eſtabliſhed in France, would exceed the limits of this book; it is ſufficiently known, that France has long ago taken the lead in faſhions, and has had the good fortune of ſeeing them imitated and adopted by moſt other nations of Europe. This fortunate pre-eminence is a very great ſource of profits. In the year 1773, there

were

were in France 1500 ſilk-mills, 21,000 looms for ſilk ſtuffs, 12,000 for ribbands and lace, 20,000 for ſilk ſtockings; and the different ſilk manufactures employed 2,000,000 perſons. (Buſching.)

As a commercial ſtate, France follows immediately after England and Holland. Its trade is carried on with all Europe; that branch of it which was carried on publicly with England was hitherto not very conſiderable. It exported to England in the year 1785, goods to the value of 117,366l. ſterling, and imported from England to the value of 358,244l. ſterling. (See Cuſtom-houſe Accounts laid before the Houſe of Commons in 1787.) But the ſmuggling trade between both countries is carried on to a great amount. It was publicly ſtated in the Houſe of Commons, that only 60,000 cags of ſpirits paid the duties, and 3,000,000 cags were ſmuggled; the greateſt part of which were French ſpirits. The French have made themſelves maſters of the greateſt ſhare of the Levant trade; they export the produce of their manufactures, chiefly woollens, and Weſt-India goods from Marſeilles to Conſtantinople, Smyrna, Syria, and Egypt. They take, how-

ever, ſo large quantities of the produce of theſe countries in return, that they are obliged to pay a balance in ready money. (V. Queſtions ſur le Commerce des François au Levant. Marſeilles, 1755.) The French enjoy ſome valuable commercial privileges in Turkey. Their African and Eaſt-India trade is likewiſe unprofitable; but their Weſt-India poſſeſſions, which are admirably cultivated and governed, make ample amends for theſe loſſes by the many articles of commerce they ſupply, which are valued at 125,000,000 livres. Before the late American war, the balance of commerce in favour of France was eſtimated at 70,000,000 livres, and it is ſaid, that it has not diminiſhed ſince. The trade is greatly facilitated by navigable canals in ſeveral parts of the kingdom (S. des canaux de navigation, 1778.) The canal de Languedoc, and ſeveral of theſe canals in Roſſillon, are maſterpieces de 1783.) The principal ports are, Paris, Lyons, Marſeilles, Bordeaux, Nantes, Rouen, St. Malo, Rochelle, Bayonne, Havre de Grace, Dunkirk, &c. Each of theſe is benefited in France by the following circumſtances and regulations: Firſt, By the great

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ſubordination, the lower claſſes of the people are kept in habits of ſobriety and induſtry; this is perhaps one of the few good conſequences of the ſeverity of a ſtrict monarchical government, which may in ſome meaſure palliate ſome other hardſhips reſulting from it. Secondly, No goods are permitted to be offered for ſale which have not previouſly been examined by proper officers, in order to prevent impoſitions on the purchaſer. Thirdly, The French colonies are under the neceſſity of being ſupplied with almoſt all neceſſaries from the mother-country. Fourthly, In the ports, for inſtance, at [illegible], the commodities imported by [illegible] depoſited in the royal warehouſes [illegible] cuſtom-houſe, and the [illegible] purchaſe are not paid at [illegible] of ſuch parts of it [illegible] out gradually from [illegible].

[illegible] ance, called the Caiſſe d'Eſcompte, enjoys conſiderable credit. There is only one trading company, viz. the Eaſt-India Company; the ſtock of which amounts to only ten millions of livres, and whoſe affairs are under the management of twelve adminiſtrators.

GOVERNMENT.

REGAL power in France was formerly very effectually reſtrained by the ſtates of the kingdom; but the latter have loſt their weight ſo entirely, that France is now one of the moſt abſolute monarchies in Europe. The king is excluſively poſſeſſed of the ſupreme power of the ſtate, and, according to the doctrine of the French law, he is to be conſidered as the vice-gerent of God, from whom alone he derives his authority. His edicts muſt however be atteſted or regiſtered by the ſupreme courts of judicature or parliaments, before they acquire the force of laws. The regiſtering of royal edicts is a trifling remainder of the ancient power of the ſtates: but it is more a matter of form than of real and conſtitutional importance. For if the parliament refuſes to regiſter an edict, the king ſends them *lettres de juſſion*, by which he enjoins them to comply with his will; and if they prove ſtill refractory, the king goes in perſon to the parliament, and orders his edict to be regiſtered in his preſence. This act of power is final, and puts

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an end to all farther oppoſition; it is called holding a *lit de juſtice*. There are inſtances that parliaments have been puniſhed with exile on account of their oppoſition to the will of the king; it happened chiefly in the reign of Louis XV. The general meetings of the ſtates have been long ago diſuſed; but in the laſt century ſmaller aſſemblies of deputies of the ſtates have been called together by the king, under the name of *aſſemblées des Notables*, to deliberate on great national affairs. We have ſeen this practice revived in the preſent year 1787. This aſſembly conſiſts of ſeveral deputies from the clergy, nobility, and the parliaments, ſelected and ſummoned by the king: it is divided into ſeveral departments or *bureaux*, in each of which a prince of the blood [illegible]; and it is chiefly employed in regulating important matters of finance and taxation.

There are now in France two ſupreme parliaments or aſſemblies of provincial ſtates. That at Paris is the moſt conſiderable; it is properly a ſupreme court of juſtice and appeal; it has however, as well as the other parliaments, ſome political rights, for inſtance, to remonſtrate againſt any edict of

the king which is thought prejudicial to the intereſts of the whole nation, or of any claſs of ſubjects. Beſides the parliament, there are ſeveral other high courts of juſtice, the great councils and ſeveral courts of finances, as ten chambers of accounts, nine courts of ſubſidies (*cours des aides*), two *chambres de monnoye*, *juriſdiction des eaux & d s fort's*. The management of ſtate affairs is chiefly in the hands of the council of ſtate, compoſed of four miniſters or ſecretaries of ſtate, whoſe departments are thoſe of foreign affairs, of the navy, of the army, and of internal adminiſtration. The council of diſpatches (*conſeil des depêches*) is chiefly employed in regulations of internal government; it is compoſed of the four miniſters above-mentioned, the chancellor, the preſident of the council of finances, and the comptroller-general of finances. In both theſe councils the king is preſent, and preſides in them. The uſual courſe of buſineſs is diſpatched by the *conſeil d'état & privé*. There are two departments of finances, the council of finance and the board, in which the comptroller-general preſides, diſtinct from the former. Another important department

is

is the council of trade. For the better adminiſtration of juſtice and public concerns in the provinces, they are ſub-divided into ſmall, middle, and large governments, and generalities. The fundamental laws of the French monarchy, are the indiviſibility of its dominions, the excluſion of female heirs from the ſucceſſion to the crown, and the King's profeſſing and maintaining the Roman Catholic religion. The civil, criminal, and police laws of France conſiſt, 1. Of a great number of royal edicts. 2. Of the cuſtomary laws prevailing in ſingle provinces. No leſs than 285 particular *coutumes* are found in France; thoſe diſtricts in which they have force of law are called *païs coutumiers*. 3. The Roman law, which prevails in thoſe provinces where there are no coutumes; thoſe provinces which have adopted it are called *païs de droit écrit* There are many inferior courts of juſtice; the ſupreme courts of appeal are the parliament and the *conſeils ſuperieurs*. In civil cauſes the law proceedings are ſlow; but in criminal caſes quicker, and very rigorous. (Analyſe hiſtorique des principes du droit François. Paris, 1757.)

FINANCES.

	French Livres	English ſterling,		
		£.	s.	d.
Total amount of the taxes annually levied on the inhabitants of France (1) —	585,000,000	24,375,000	0	0
Annual expences of the ſtate, including the civil and military eſtabliſhments —	610,000,000	25,416,666	13	4
Expences of collecting the taxes —	58,000,000	2,416,666	13	4
Annual amount of the importations —	230,000,00	9,583,333	6	8
Ditto of the exportations ——	300,000,000	12,500,000	0	0
Ditto balance of commerce — —	70,	2,916,666		
Annual intereſt of the national debt (2)	267, 00		0	0
Annual charge of the army (3) —	124		0	0
Annual charge of the navy — —	1 ,?	1, 33 ;	6	8
Amount of gold and ſilver coin ſuppoſed to be actually exiſting in the kingdom	2,200,	91 66,666	13	4
Suppoſed annual increaſe ——	40,0 ,00	1,666,666	13	4

(NECKER's Treatiſe on the Adminiſtration of the Finances of France, Vol. III p. 470. in Engliſh, by Th. Mortimer.)

The whole of the public revenue is ſtated by Mr. Necker at 600 millions (equal to 25,000,000l. ſterling) and the whole of the public expenditure at 610 millions. This ſtatement however includes the expences of collection, and taxes laid on the ſubject on the particular account of the ſtates, the clergy, &c. But the *Compte Rendu* ſtates the net produce, which amounts only to 430 millions, or about 18,000,000l. ſterling. The public debt in 1784 amounted to 3400 millions of livres; and 27 millions and a half annually were appropriated to reduce the debt; it was calculated that 1264 millions ſhould be paid in the courſe of 25 years. The method of payment ſeems [illegible] diſtant, as hitherto [illegible] paid every year. The [illegible] of France however, when properly managed, are ſo great, that the kingdom ſeems capable of bearing [illegible] burthens.

ARMY,

ARMY, 1783.

In actual ſervice 128,000 men, viz		On the liſts 300,758 men.
Cavalry . 25,024	——	45,000
Infantry 95,000	——	170,000
Artillery 7,000	——	11,700

Militia 70,000 men.

(Military Biblioth.)

The king's guards, called *la maiſon du roi*, amount to 10,000 men. The cavalry, beſides the regular regiments, has huſſars and chaſſeurs.

In the year 1784, the whole army conſiſted of

Infantry	144,624
Cavalry	58,176
Mineurs	9798
Engineers	326
Total	212,924

The whole military department is under the direction of the ſecretary at war, one of the principal ſecretaries of ſtate. (S. Etat Militaire de France, par Rouſſel pour l'année 1785.)

NAVY.

NAVY, 1785.

256 Ships, viz.

Ships of the line		72
Frigates	—	74
Corvettes	—	28
Gallies	—	36
Cutters	—	27
Fire-ships	—	19
		256

In the year 1780-1782, the number of ships was 266.

The navy department is divided into the western and eastern departments (*du Ponent & du Levant*) the first of which has again three sub-divisions. The chief ports of the royal navy are those of Toulon, Brest, Port-Louis, Rochefort, and Havre de Grace; that of Cherbourg is at present repairing.

All naval affairs are under the management of the Secretaire de la Marine; the chief commander of the fleet is the Lord Admiral of France. There are in France six naval academies, and many military schools, for the formation of sea and land officers

officers. Old and diſabled ſeamen enjoy half-pay during the remainder of their lives.

RELIGION.

THE eſtabliſhed religion of this kingdom is the Roman Catholic; and ſince the year 1685, in which the edict of Nantes was repealed, greatly to the prejudice of the kingdom, no other Chriſtian ſect is legally tolerated. Even in the preſent enlightened age the penal laws againſt the Proteſtants are not aboliſhed; a preſſure which continues to be ſeverely felt by the latter, although it has been found expedient not to put the laws againſt them in execution. Alſatia is the only province where they enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion. Their number is very great, and is ſaid to amount to three millions. (Buſching.) In ſome parts of the kingdom, for inſtance, at Bourdeaux and Metz, Jews are tolerated under certain reſtrictions. In the eſtabliſhed church the ſect of Janſeniſts are very numerous. The Gallican church has always been able to

defend

defend its liberties againſt the encroachments of papal power, and it has adopted only ſuch parts of the canon law as do not militate againſt its rights. The biſhoprics and prebends are entirely in the gift of the king. No other Catholic ſtate, except thoſe of Italy, has ſo numerous a clergy as France: there are in this kingdom 18 archbiſhops, 111 biſhops, 166,000 clergymen, 5400 convents, containing 200,000 perſons devoted to a monaſtic life. The numbers of the clergy are however greatly decreaſing, and according to ſome ſtatements, they are at preſent dwindled down to 130,000 perſons. The revenues amount to 121 millions of livres, but they are ſubject to heavy taxation. *,The income of the biſhops alone is eſtimated at 6,000,000 of livres. Every dioceſe has a court, called *bureau dioceſain*, the juriſdiction of which reſpects the contributions payable by the clergy, and is limited to ſums under 20 livres. From theſe courts appeal may be made to nine *chambres eccleſiaſtiques ſuperieures*.

GENERAL REMARKS.

TO the advantages enjoyed by this kingdom, which have been ſtated under the article of its wealth and commerce, we muſt add its extraordinary population, and the favourable circumſtance, that its provinces, extending over a very large ſurface, are ſo happily united and rounded as to give reciprocal ſtrength and ſecurity to each other. Conſidering the great reſources and the ſuperior advantages of France, it is not ſo much to be wondered at that it acts the principal part on the great political theatre of Europe, as that it is not much more powerful and opulent, and that its inhabitants are not much happier than they actually are. Many pernicious political prejudices, deeply rooted in the ſtate by the length of time in which its eccleſiaſtical and civil form has been the ſame, and the vain ambition of its rulers, who exhauſted its reſources for the ſake of dear-bought and precarious conqueſts, have checked the real progreſs of this empire. Yet what is now wanting, a few ſucceſſive good reigns, or even one reign of moderate length,

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of an enlightened and benevolent prince, poſſeſſed of the power which is entruſted to a French monarch, might eaſily ſupply. Should the kingdom be bleſt with a monarch wiſe and good enough to expect his brighteſt glory from the felicity and opulence of his ſubjects; juſt enough to put a ſtop to the diſgraceful and unreaſonable religious oppreſſion, to allow induſtrious individuals to enjoy ſecurely the fruits of their labours, and to extirpate that monſtrous ſyſtem of extortion which permits forty farmers-general to enrich themſelves by the plunder of the miſerable ſubject; a prince active enough to inform himſelf of the ſtate of the kingdom by his own eyes, and not to rely on the miſrepreſentations of his miniſters; ſuch a prince might raiſe France to a height of power unprecedented in modern hiſtory. But ſuch an event is ſcarce to be wiſhed, when we conſider, that this power, in the hands of a weaker ſucceſſor to an arbitrary throne, might endanger and deſtroy the liberty of Europe. From ſuch a height however France is at preſent ſtill very diſtant; its preſent ſtate is a convincing proof how prejudicial a harſh and oppreſſive political ſyſtem is to a coun-

try much favoured by nature, and, even in ſpite of deſpotiſm, rich, cultivated, and populous. That part of politics which reſpects the art of negotiating, and the means of obtaining quick and ſecret intelligence of the political meaſures of other countries, France has cultivated with great ardour and ſucceſs. Many millions of livres have been and are now annually ſpent on the ſingle article of ſecret intelligence, and gaining over perſons of conſequence to its intereſt: the French ambaſſadors have extraordinary ſalaries; and it is certain, that the French miniſtry are poſſeſſed of the moſt accurate plans of every important fortification in neighbouring kingdoms. Nor is the political influence of France confined to European powers; it is very conſiderable at Conſtantinople and ſome other Aſiatic courts, and was lately exceedingly great in North-America. In conſequence of its great connections, France has more than once acted the part of a general peace-maker of Europe. The excellent police in France, eſpecially in the capital, deſerves to be imitated by other countries, at leaſt as far as its proceedings are not of too arbitrary a nature.

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The ſciences have riſen to a very great height in this kingdom, and this nation can boaſt of having produced great maſter-pieces in almoſt every branch of ſcientific knowledge and elegant literature. The influence of a ſuperſtitious religion on ſcience has been leſs felt in France than in other Catholic countries; probably from the emulation of the Catholics with their Proteſtant countrymen, who for many years enjoyed free exerciſe of their religion, and who made great progreſſes in ſciences. During the laſt hundred years the French language has acquired the great privilege of being generally introduced as a polite language into all other European countries. Beſides the excellence of the French writers of the age of Louis XV. the circulation of that language muſt be attributed to the frequent wars and negociations of the French, to the prevalence of their faſhions, and to the diſperſion of ſeveral hundred thouſand baniſhed Proteſtants over other countries, where the politeneſs of their manners effected a predilection for their language. The French themſelves have been ſo vain of it, that they have for a long while diſdained to learn other languages, and of

courſe remained ignorant of the taſte and literature of other nations; a circumſtance which has too much confined their literature and criticiſm.

There are in France 20 univerſities, of which the univerſity of Paris, called the Sorbonne, is the moſt remarkable; yet much more for its antiquity and former conſequence, than its preſent influence on the knowledge of the nation. The Royal Academies of Sciences, of the French Language, and of Inſcriptions and Antiquities at Paris, are juſtly celebrated; theſe as well as the many other provincial academies and ſocieties have produced a number of illuſtrious writers, whoſe fame, by means of the univerſal adoption of the language they write in, is extended throughout Europe.

TABLE

TABLE XII.

SARDINIA.

AUTHORITIES.

1. *CETTI Storia Naturale*, &c. Cetti's Natural History of Sardinia. 1782.
2. *Vorlesungen über die Statistick von Italien.* Lectures on the present State of Italy, by M. Le Brett. 1784. (German.)
3. *Polit. Histor. Abhandlung uber die Regierungsform einiger Staaten.* Treatises on the Constitution of several European States, by Count Albon. 1784. (Germ.)
4. Description historique & critique de l'Italie, par l'Abbé Richard. 1779.
5. *Nachrichten aus Sardinien*, &c. Account of the present political State of Sardinia. 1780. (German.)
6. *Histor. critische Nachrichten von Italien.* Historical and critical description of Italy, by Dr. Volckmann. (German.) 1777.

7. De la Lande Voyage d'un François en Italie. 1769.
8. Keyſler's, Groſley's, Smollet's, Baretti's Travels through Italy.
9. *Leggi e Conſtituzioni di S. M. Torino*, 1770, 2 vols. The new Code of Laws publiſhed by his Sardinian Majeſty.

TABLE

EXTENT and DIVISIONS.		Population.	Population for every single square mile.	TOWNS.
		3,[illegible],000	157	
1. The kingdom of Sardinia — —		420,000 Italian.	53	Inhabitants. Cagliari — — 24,000 Saffari — — 12,000
2. The Duchy of Savoy — — —	2,880	300,000	104	Chambery — — 11,000
3. Duchy of Piedmont — — —	10,240	2,450,000	239	Turin — — 82,000 Vercelli — — 20,000 Nizza — — 12,000 Aleſſandria — — 12,000

WEALTH AND COMMERCE.

OF the dominions of his Sardinian majeſty, the dutchy of Savoy alone is not fertile. The iſland of Sardinia, and the provinces of Piedmont and Montferrat, abound in corn, wine, oil, oranges, lemons, almonds, figs, maize, rice, hemp and flax. Sardinia has large flocks of ſheep; the number of ſheep is ſaid to amount to 1,600,000: it is remarkable, that in this iſland there ſubſiſts ſtill a ſpecies of wild ſheep, called the *muflon*. The fiſheries on the coaſt of Sardinia produce, even in the worſt years, upwards of 60,000 ſcudi, in the article of tunny-fiſh, and a conſiderable ſum for black-fiſh (ſepia Linn.) and anchovies, beſides other ſpecies of fiſh. Some mines in this iſland produce iron, and a ſmall quantity of ſilver: ſalt, ſufficient for the conſumption of the country, is made of ſea-water: there are likewiſe quarries of marble, alabaſter, and other valuable ſtones. Savoy is celebrated on account of its breed of mules, many of which are ſent abroad. Piedmont raiſes large quantities of the fineſt ſilk; ſingle peaſants often

raiſe

raiſe 100lb. each every year. Upwards of 100,000lb. are required to ſupply the ſilk manufactures at Turin, where there are about 600 looms for ſilk ſtockings. In the village of Torre, in Piedmont, upwards of 50,000lb. of ſilk are ſpun. About 300,000lb. of raw and ſpun ſilk are annually ſent to Switzerland: the whole produce of raw ſilk in the Sardinian dominions, is eſtimated at 650;000 lb. Piedmont has woollen manufactures, which ſupply the cloathing of the army. There is a manufacture of ropes and tackle in this province, a large quantity of which articles is exported from Nizza to Marſeilles, Toulon, and Genoa. Of the Piedmonteſe wines, a conſiderable quantity is exported to Genoa and Milan, and ſeveral delicate ſpirituous liquors are diſtilled, known by the name of roſſoli. The imports of the Sardinian provinces, which are nearly the ſame with thoſe of the reſt of Italy, conſiſt in hardware, metals, cotton, woollen, and ſilk ſtuffs, linen, leather, whalebone, train oil, herrings, cod, tar, pitch, timber, porcelaine, &c. The goods imported from England into Italy amount annually to about 513,000l. ſterl. and Eng-

land takes in return for 687,155l. ſterling, which leaves a conſiderable balance in favour of Italy. (ſee Cuſtom-Houſe account of exports and imports, laid before the Houſe of Commons in 1787.) Trade is much diſcouraged in Italy by the heavy duties impoſed on it; and in the iſlands of Sardinia and Sicily it is ſtill more ſtagnating, A great fair is kept every year at Aleſſandria.

GOVERNMENT.

THE government in the Sardinian ſtates is abſolutely monarchical. In the iſland of Sardinia, however, the ſtates aſſemble; but merely to grant free gifts or ſubſidies to the king, in whoſe hands the whole legiſlative, as well as executive power, is veſted. As the provinces which compoſe this kingdom have been united under the ſame government at different periods of time, and had formed independent ſtates before, each of them has its peculiar laws and cuſtoms, which were ſuffered to continue in force

force as far as they did not militate againſt the king's edicts. The Roman laws, however, ſerve for their foundation. The royal edicts are collected in the new code, publiſhed in 1770, at Turin, and entitled, Leggi e Conſtituzioni di Sa Maeſtà. Among the ſtate departments, the council of ſtate is the higheſt. Sardinia forms a ſeparate government, under a viceroy. Juſtice is adminiſtered by a number of inferior and territorial courts, in which the proprietors of large eſtates appoint the judges: the judges of the ſuperior courts are appointed by the king: from theſe courts appeal lies to ſeveral courts of appeal, the higheſt of which is *il ſupremo real conſiglio*, at Turin.

FINANCES.

THE revenue of the king amounts to 17 millions of lire, or nearly 1,000,000l. ſterling. Sardinia contributes only one million of lire towards this ſum, which, by deducting the expences of government, is reduced

duced to about 200,000 lire. The royal revenues are raiſed from the crown-domains, from the cuſtoms, the mint, the poſts, land-tax, ſalt-duty, ſtamps, a monopoly of tobacco, and a lottery of that ſort called *Lotto di Genoa*. All matters of finances are under the direction of a miniſter, or intendant general of finances. In former times, the ſtate had contracted debts; but, by the wiſe œconomy adopted during the preſent reign, they are paid off, or reduced to a trifling ſum.

ARMY.

22,000 men; in time of war, upwards of 30,000 men.

It is compoſed of the following regiments:

Swiſs Body Guards.

13 regiments of Infantry.

1 regiment of *guardie*, Foot Guards.

3 regiments of Swiſs.

4 ——— Horſe.

6 ——— Dragoons.

1 battalion of Light Troops.

Several

Several Free Corps.
Regiment of Artillery.
Engineers.
Corps of Invalids.
Militia, 6,000 men.

Beſides the uſual general officers and commanders in chief, the Sardinian army has an inſpector-general. (S. Calendario per la real Corte, 1784, Torino.) All military affairs are under the direction of a ſecretary at war. The Sardinian navy is very inſignificant, conſiſting of about 32 ſmall armed veſſels, and one battalion of marines.

RELIGION.

THE eſtabliſhed Roman Catholic religion is not quite ſo intolerant in this kingdom as in ſome other ſtates: the wiſdom of government has greatly limited the power of the Pope and of the inquiſition. A ſtop is likewiſe put to the perſecutions of the harmleſs Proteſtants, in the vallies of Lucern, Peyrouſe, and St. Martin, formerly ſo famous,

mous, by the name of Vaudois, on account of their ſufferings and firm adherence to the cauſe of truth: their number amounts to about 20,000. The very numerous clergy in theſe ſtates are not rich. The church is governed by five archbiſhops and 26 biſhops: the whole number of clerical perſons, including monks and nuns, is ſaid to amount to 350,000; but this ſtatement, probably, is too large. They are obliged to pay the ſame taxes with the laity, beſides other burthens which the king has it in his power to impoſe on them. On the whole, the clergy are entirely dependant on the king, and ſubject to the ſecular juriſdiction: the church preferments are all in the gift of the king.

GENERAL REMARKS.

THE provinces of Savoy and Piedmont are, by their ſituation, the key to Italy; and they are of the greateſt conſequence in wars between the houſe of Auſtria and France. Both theſe powers have, therefore, always courted the alliance of the princes

princes poſſeſſed of theſe provinces; and the latter have wiſely availed themſelves of this favourable ſituation, to increaſe their own power, by joining with either of the two, as it beſt ſuited their views. At preſent the king of Sardinia is the moſt powerful prince in Italy. Under the preſent reign, which is diſtinguiſhed by its wiſdom and activity, the ſtate is in a riſing and proſperous condition. Its revenue is encreaſing, and its progreſs in opulence would be rapid, if it were not for the great impediments thrown into the way of commerce. The ſciences are likewiſe in a flouriſhing ſtate. Turin has a univerſity, a ſociety of ſciences and fine libraries, and collections of paintings and ſtatues. Two other univerſities are eſtabliſhed at Cagliari and Saſſari: the other inſtitutions of education are greatly improving, in conſequence of a regulation enjoining ſchoolmaſters to undergo a ſtrict examination at the univerſity, before they are permitted to give inſtructions.

TABLE

TABLE XIII.

NAPLES AND SICILY.

AUTHORITIES.

1. RIFLESSIONI intorno il Commercio del Regno di Napoli, 1769, 8vo.
2. Lettres sur la Sicile par un Voyageur Italien. Amsterdam, 1778.
3. Mineralogic Sicilienne par le Comte de Borch, 1786.
4. Swinburne's, Brydone's, Dillon's, Riedesel's and Sestini's Travels.
5. Count Albon's Tracts, Abbé Richard, Le Brett's Lectures, Dr. Volckmann, mentioned among the authorities of the preceding table.
6. Dizzionario Corografico, Orittologico, &c. della Italia, Bologna 1782.

TABLE XIII. NAPLES AND SICILY.

Extent and Divisions.	Areas in square Miles.	Population.	Population for each single square mile.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Dominions — —	29,600	6,000,000	203	
1. The Kingdom of NAPLES Divided in 12 Giuſtizierati	20,384	4,675,000 B. 4,500,000 Swinburne	230	(144 Towns.) Inhabit. Naples — — 380,900 Padua — — 5,000 Ariano — — 14,000 Salerno — — Foggia — — 20,000 Manfredonia — — 6,000 La Cerignola — 12,000 Lecce — — 14,000 Francavilla — — 12,000 Gallipoli — — 6,000 Brindiſi — — 9,000 Tarento — — 16,000 Swinb. et Riedeſel
2. The Kingdom of SICILY	9,216	1,300,000	141	Palermo — — 120,000 Meſſina (1775) — 20,000 Catania — — 25,000 Girgenti — — 20,000 Syracuſa — — 14,000

WEALTH AND COMMERCE.

THE fertility of both Naples and Sicily is ſo great, that Nature produces her gifts almoſt ſpontaneouſly, and little aſſiſted by the induſtry of the inhabitants. In both countries the natural productions, as well as the climate, are nearly the ſame with thoſe in Spain, except that the former, and more eſpecially the iſland of Sicily, are much richer in corn. Naples exports annually, 1,500,000 tomoli of wheat, equal to 1,885,000 Wincheſter buſhels, (Swinburne): 200,000 caſſiſi of oil, weighing 18 lb. Avoirdupois each: it is reckoned that the average amount of the exportation of oil exceeds in value four millions of florins. Saffron, raiſed in the province of Abruzzo, is exported annually to the value of 30,000 ducats, the ducat equal to 3s. 9d. Sicily exports 2,000 cheſts of oranges, (Swinburne): the environs of Syracuſe produce near 40 different ſorts of excellent wine, and 84,000 cwt. of almonds, and great quantities of piſtachios peculiar to that diſtrict, (Seſtini). Meſſina ſends off

6,000

6,000 chefts of lemons, and the reft of the kingdom about as much more: 280 barrels of lemon juice, weighing ten falme each, and 27 cwt. of bergamot juice, (Swinburne). The quantity of filk raifed in the kingdom of Naples amounts to 800,000 lb. and Sicily produces annually to the value of 187,000 l. fterling. The latter country produces likewife manna, barilla, oil of turpentine, the fugar-cane, cotton, and many other vegetable productions of the warmer climates, which, however, are of inferior commercial importance. The mineral kingdom is remarkable for the extraordinary variety of its productions: of metals, Naples has filver, iron, copper; and Sicily, tin and lead; yet, except the marble quarries and falt, very little advantage has hitherto been derived from minerals. (S. Borch Mineralogie Sicilienne).

The imports of Naples and Sicily conſiſt in woollens, linen, hardware, articles of luxury, and Eaſt and Weſt-India productions. There are but few manufactures in proportion to the riches of the ſoil; and the wool raiſed in theſe kingdoms is exported to other countries. Naples is the centre of trade;

but trade and navigation is almoſt entirely in the hands of foreigners. The fiſheries are very valuable, eſpecially thoſe of the tunny-fiſh, anchovies, and corals: from the ſilk of the *pinna marina*, gloves are manufactured.

In this kingdom the breed of horſes and of mules is very excellent and celebrated.

GOVERNMENT.

NAPLES is a fief of the Holy See, and a trifling annual tribute is paid in acknowledgment of the Pope's rights; yet the dependence of the king, who is *legatus natus* of the ſee of Rome, on his feudal lord, is merely nominal. The government is monarchical, but not quite abſolute; for though the king's power is very great, the ſtates have preſerved the right of meeting every other year, in order to grant ſubſidies, or a *don gratuit*, to the king. This aſſembly is called a parliament; it is compoſed of deputies from the nobility, the order of citizens, and of the prelates who are poſſeſſed of baronics.

ronies. Royal edicts, before they acquire the force of laws, muſt be regiſtered by another aſſembly of the nobility and the order of citizens; it conſiſts of ſix *ſeggi*, or wards, five of which are governed by a committee of nobles; the laſt belongs excluſively to the Plebeians, and is governed by ſix eletti, who are likewiſe the chief civil magiſtrates of the city of Naples.

In Sicily the ſtates have likewiſe a ſhare in government, by the right which they poſſeſs of granting ſubſidies to the crown. They are compoſed of three claſſes, or *bracci*, the nobility or military claſs, the clergy, and the royal demeſne-lands, viz. 42 royal towns.

The great ſtate officers are nominated by the king; the higheſt department of government is the ſtate-council, compoſed of four miniſters or ſecretaries of ſtate. Next to this council is that called *conſiglio collaterale*, and ſeveral departments for particular branches of public buſineſs. Sicily is governed by a viceroy. The late king has publiſhed a new code of laws, called Codex Carolinus; yet, notwithſtanding the improvements it contains, the proceedings of juſtice in this country are ſtill very dilatory. It is ſaid there are

not less than 30,000 lawyers at Naples, (Swinburne). In some parts of the kingdom the possessors of large estates have a territorial jurisdiction, in others the king: from the provincial courts appeals may be made to the *Gran Corte della Vicaria*; and, in the last instance, to the Supreme Court of Appeal at Naples.

FINANCES.

5,000,000 ducati, or dollars. (De Riesch.)
Naples raises 4,000,000.
Sicily, 1,000,000.

According to others, the king's revenue amounts to 12,000,000 florini, raised from the following sources:

The capitation in Naples yields	4,200,000 fl.
The capitation in Sicily	2,300,000
Customs and port duties	1,000,000
The farming of tobacco	660,000

The remainder arises from the king's domains; the monopolies of salt, gunpowder, manna, &c. and the don gratuit. (Swinburne.)

The

The king's finances are adminiſtered by the department called *Azienda reale*, for Naples, and by the *Tribunale della Regia Camera*, for Sicily.

A R M Y.

25,200 men. (De Rieſch.) viz.

Cavalry	—	3,500
Infantry	—	20,500
Artillery	—	1,200

According to others, 27,840 men, including 3,048 guards. It is, however, very probable, that both ſtatements are exaggerated. About one half of the army is ſaid to be quartered at Naples.

N A V Y.

25 armed ſhips.

4 frigates, from 30 to 54 guns.

8 chebeques of 20 guns.

6 chebeques for duty.

3 galleys.

4 galeotes.

Both the army and navy are under the adminiſtration of a council of war, in which one of the ſecretarics of ſtate preſides. (S. Calendario della Corte, 1789.)

RELIGION.

THE inhabitants of Naples and Sicily are bigotted Roman Catholics, and more zealous than thoſe of Rome. There is, however, no inquiſition eſtabliſhed in the country. The power of the Pope in theſe kingdoms is not great. In Naples, ſome prebends are in his gift; but in Sicily, all church preferment is in the gift of the king. The clergy is very numerous; and ſo rich, that not leſs than one half of the riches of the country are in the poſſeſſion of the church. There are, in Naples, 20 archbiſhops and 107 biſhops: in Sicily, three archbiſhops and eight biſhops. In the year 1782, there were in Naples alone 45,525 prieſts, 24,694 monks, 20,793 nuns. In 1783, government reſolved to diſſolve 466 convents

convents of nuns, and the beginning has been actually made to carry this reſolution into execution.

GENERAL REMARKS.

THIS beautiful country ought not only to be happy and opulent, on account of its genial climate, and the bounty of the ſoil, but it ought to be the ſeat of every art and ſcience, on account of the invaluable remains of antiquity, the numerous natural curioſities, and the enchanting and romantic ſcenery it poſſeſſes. It actually begins to riſe to its natural conſequence from the low ſtate in which frequent wars, and the neglect of its maſters, had ſuffered it to remain. Yet manufactures and commerce, which can make any conſiderable progreſs only by the aid of knowledge and liberty, are far ſhort of that height which is favourable to the general improvement of arts and ſciences. The preſent government ſeems to have the welfare of the country more at heart than any former. There are, in Naples and Sicily, four univerſities, viz. thoſe of

Naples, Salerno, Palermo, and Catania, of which the firſt is the moſt uſeful. At the capital there is likewiſe an academy of ſciences, and magnificent collections of antiquities. Naples has long been the principal and favourite ſeat of muſic. Education is greatly neglected; the ſchools are ſtill in the hands of monks, whoſe intereſt it is that ſuperſtition and ignorance ſhould prevail, and who are the greateſt enemies to the liberty of thinking and writing.

TABLE

TABLE XIV.

SPAIN.

AUTHORITIES.

1. ESSAIS ſur l'Eſpagne, par M. Peiron. Geneve, 1780.
2. *Viage de Eſpana, o Cartas en que ſe da noticia de las coſas mas apreçables, por Anton de la Puenta.* Madrid, 1772—1783, 12 vols. Ant. Ponz's Travels through Spain.
3. Obſervations ſur l'Article Eſpagne de l'Encyclopedie, ou ſur l'Etat preſent de l'Eſpagne, par l'Abbé Cavanilles, à Paris, 1783, 8vo.
4. *Neuere Staatſkunde von Spanien.* The preſent State of Spain. Berlin, 1785.
5. Mentelle Geographie Comparée. 1783.
6. *F. Mariana Nipho Deſcripcion Geografica de Todos los Pueblos de Eſpanna.* Madr. 1769, 4to.
7. La Theorie et Pratique du Commerce & de la Marine de l'Eſpagne, par Don Ter. Uſtariz, 1753.

8. Me-

8. Memoires ſur les Manufactures de l'Eſpagne. Hambourg, 1773.
9. Campomanes *von der Unterſtützung der Induſtrie in Spanien.* On the Encouragements of Induſtry in Spain. Tranſlated into German, 1778, 8vo.
10. Travels by Dalrymple, Twiſs, Pluer, Clarke, Dillon, and Swinburne.

TABLE

Extent and Divisions.	Areas in fquare Miles.	Population.	Population per every Square Mile	TOWNS.	
36° —— 44 lat. 3° —— 10 east long.	148,448 according to Lopez s map	10,500,00 according to Count Aranda.	70	Towns — — Villages and Poroughs according to others 18,000.	139 21,083
					Inhab t.
1. New Caftile — —	28,000			Madrid —— Toledo —— Aranjuez ——	140,000 16,000 7,000
2. Old Caftile — —	11,840			Burgos —— Segovia ——	10,000 9,500
3. Leon — —	12,880			Leon —— Valladolid —— Salamanca ——	6,000 19,000 13,000
4. Granada — —	9,280	500,000	53	Granada —— Malaga ——	52,000 41,000
5. Andalufia, viz. Sevilla — — Cordova and Jaen	15,360	325,000		Sevilla (120,000) Cadiz —— Cordova —— Jaen —— Antequera ——	80,000 80,000 20,000 27,000 19 600
6. Murcia — —	3,000			Murcia —— Cartagena ——	41,000 23,000

TABLE XIV. CONTINUED.

Extent and Divisions.	Area in square Miles	Population	Population for every Square Mile.	TOWNS.	Inhabit
7. Valencia — —	7,850	7[illegible] Castellas	91	Valencia ——	8[illegible]
				Alicante —	1[illegible]
8. Catalonia — —	9,280			Barcelona —	115,000
				Tarragona —	7,[illegible]
				Lerida ——	16 000
9. Aragonia — —	11,300	4[illegible]000	41	Saragoça —	[illegible],000
				Jaca ——	5,[illegible]
10. Navarra — —	2,580			Pamplona —	11,[illegible]
				Tudela ——	
11. Biscaya, Guipuzca, and Alava	4,460			Bilboa ——	6,000
				St. Sebastian —	8,000
12. Asturia — —	3,840			Oviedo ——	7,[illegible]
13 Gallicia — —	10,240			St. Jago Compostella	12,000
				Corunna —	3,[illegible]
				Ferrol ——	7,[illegible]
14. Estremadura —				Badajoz —	3,[illegible]
				Merida ——	
15. Balearic Islands,				Palma ——	23,000
Majorca — —	1,440			Mahon ——	
Minorca ——	752	2[illegible],800	[illegible]2	Ciudadella ——	2,000
Iviça		Mixra		Iviça ——	

POSSESSIONS IN OTHER PARTS OF THE GLOBE.

1. IN *Africa*. On the Coaſt of Barbary, the towns of Ceuta, Oran, Melilla, and Maſalquivir: the Canary Iſlands, viz. Canaria, Ferro, Teneriffa, &c. The iſlands of Annabon and Delpo, under the Equator.

2. In *Aſia*. The Philippine Iſlands; the principal of which is Luzon, whoſe capital is Manilla. The Marian, the Caroline, and Palaos Iſlands.

3. In *America*, immenſe provinces, much larger than all Europe, moſt of which are aſtoniſhingly fertile.

(1.) In North-America, Louiſiana, California, New Spain, New Mexico, both the Floridas.

(2.) In the Weſt-Indies, the iſland of Cuba, one half of St. Domingo, Puerto-rico, Trinidad, Margareta, Tortuga, &c.

(3.) In South-America, Terra-Firma, Peru, Chili, Tucuman, Paraguay, Patagonia.

Theſe

Theſe extenſive countries are inhabited partly by Spaniards, partly by the native Indians, and Negroes: from the intermixing of theſe different nations, ſeveral new races of men are deſcended, diſtinguiſhed by their colour, and known by the names of Meſtizzos, Creoles, Genizaros, Mulattoes, &c.

See Raynal, Tilhac, and Robertſon's Hiſtory of America.

WEALTH

WEALTH AND COMMERCE.

THE kingdom of Spain might be one of the richeſt countries Europe. It borders, like France, upon two ſeas; it is interſected by ſix large ſtreams, and by upwards of fifty ſmaller rivers; it has very conſiderable mountains, and its climate is, in ſome reſpects, ſtill finer than that of France. With reſpect to its ſize, it is ſomewhat inferior to the latter; however, the advantages juſt enumerated, added to the immenſe extent and wealth of the Indies, ought to raiſe this monarchy high above all the other powers of Europe. And yet the reverſe is the caſe: Spain is thinly peopled, has but little commerce, few manufactures, and what commerce it has is almoſt entirely in the hands of ſtrangers, notwithſtanding the impediments thrown in their way by government. With reſpect to the induſtry and fertility of the ſeveral provinces, Abbé Cavanilles diſtinguiſhes between the central and outward provinces; the latter, viz. Gallicia, Aſturia, Navarra, Arragon, Catalonia, Valencia, Murcia, Granada, and the ſouth of Andaluſia, are

better

better watered and wooded, conſequently leſs hot, and upon the whole much more fertile, than the middle provinces; moſt of them have beſides, the advantage of being maritime provinces. As a favourable inſtance of the fertility and induſtry of Spain, the ſame author has ſtated the produce of the province of Valencia in the following manner:

	French Livres.
Silk, 2,000,000 lb. valued at	30,000,000
Hemp ——— ———	1,500,000
Flax ——— ———	1,500,000
Wool, of the coarſer ſort, 23,000 cwt. ——— ———	920,000
Rice ——— ———	5,180,000
Oil, 100,000 cwt. ———	4,500,000
Wine, 3,000,000 cantaros —	2,250,000
Dried raiſins, 60,000 cwt.	600,000
Figs ——— ———	480,000
Dates ——— ———	300,000
	46,730,000

The articles of corn, oil, maize, almonds, ſoda, ſalt, and the fiſheries of the ſame province, amounted in 1770 to 65, 0,000 livres. The amount and variety of theſe productions is really aſtoniſhing; yet it muſt be

be owned, that this province is perhaps the richeſt in Spain. One of the greateſt obſtacles to agriculture in this kingdom is the breeding very large flocks of ſheep, the value of which is eſtimated in Spain at 30,000,000 livres. They take up too great an extent of ground for their ſubſiſtence, to the prejudice of agriculture and population. The number of thoſe ſheep whoſe wool is of the fineſt ſort, is eſtimated at 5,000,000; the profits ariſing from them amount annually to 8,500,000 livres, of which 2,200,000 are paid to the king, 5,600,000 muſt be deducted for the neceſſary expences, and only 700,000 livres are the clear benefit of the proprietors. Of this fine wool 40,000 cwt. is annually ſent off to London and Briſtol (Dillon); about the ſame quantity to Rouen; 20,000 cwt. to Amſterdam, of which only 6000 cwt. remain in Holland; the reſt is exported chiefly to different parts of Germany. The principal towns which carry on the wool-trade, are the harbours of Bilboa and Santander, where wool is ſhipped for exportation; and thoſe which produce the fineſt ſorts of wool,

are Leon, Segovia, (which alone produces 25,000 cwt.) Avila, Burgos, and Soria.

Agriculture flouriſhes moſt in the provinces of Caſtile and Eſtremadura; but, upon the whole, Spain does not produce corn enough for its conſumption, and is under the neceſſity of importing large quantities.

Spain produces excellent fruit, as oranges, lemons, almonds, figs, and grapes. In 1764, there were exported from the harbour of Malaga 7000 cheſts of lemons and oranges, holding from 1000 to 1500 each; 1000 barrels of figs, at 75—150 lb. each; 400 barrels of almonds, of 275—300 lb. each; 500 balls of orange and lemon-peel; 15 balls of roſemary, the ball weighing 750 lb. (Pluers). Pomegranates, dates, piſtachios (beſides the kernel of this fruit, which reſembles an almond in flavour, the leaves of it are uſed in Spain; they are boiled down to a reſinous juice, which ſerves inſtead of frankincenſe). Capers, cheſnuts, of which 30,000 ſhiplaſts are produced in the province of Aſturia; filberts, 30,000 bags of which, ſold at 1 l. ſterling each, are ſent over to England. (Dillon.) The ſugar-cane, which is however at preſent little cultivated, on account of the

importation

importation of Weſt-India ſugar: only four ſugar-mills are now remaining in the province of Granada. Soda, ſaffron, tobacco. The greateſt tobacco-manufacture is at Seville; it employs 1000 workmen and 180 mules, uſed to put 28 mills in motion. The building uſed for this purpoſe reſembles a palace in magnificence, and the profits it yields amount to 6,000,000 of dollars: every day 24,000 lb. of tobacco are dried. Tobacco is mixed in this manufacture with a ſort of red earth, called Almagra (rubrica fabrilis) which is found near Carthagena, in the province of Murcia. (Swinburne.) Upwards of 1000 cwt. of honey is exported; but the conſumption of wax is ſo great, that a great deal muſt be imported from the Weſt-Indies. Salt is very plentiful in Spain; there are not only many rich brine-ſprings, but large quantities of rock-ſalt; and much ſalt is alſo extracted from the ſea-water. Unhappily, the ſalt-trade is a monopoly of the crown. Saltpetre abounds in this country; the ſoil is impregnated with it, and many peaſants have ſaltpetre pits: if properly attended to, conſiderable quantities for exportation might be produced. The wines of

Spain are celebrated for their rich and delicious flavour, and they form very considerable articles of exportation.

Next to the province of Valencia, those of Arragon, Granada, and Murcia, are distinguished for the large quantities of silk they supply. The whole produce of silk within these four provinces was estimated about 30 years ago at about 1,500,000lb. annually. (Pleurs.) This produce has however increased of late: in 1776, Granada and Murcia produced 700,000 lb. (Dillon), and Valencia upwards of 1,000,000. In 1762, the silk raised in Valencia amounted to 1,150,000 lb. in Murcia to 400,000, in Arragon to 170,000, in Granada to 100,000lb. (See Busching's Magazine.) Notwithstanding these vast quantities of silk, the silk manufactures are few and inconsiderable in proportion; scarcely the fourth part of those remain which were in a flourishing state in the 16th century. Of 70,000 looms, which Spain formerly had, Ustariz found only 10,000 remaining in the year 1724. Since that time, however, their number has again increased.

Cotton

Cotton is likewiſe one of the many productions of this kingdom; Valencia, in good years, produces 120,500 cwt. moſt of which is exported raw. (Swinburne.) The beſt cotton-manufactures are in Valencia, Arragon, and Catalonia.

Gold and ſilver was found in the mines in very conſiderable quantities during the times of the Roman dominion, and even afterwards by the induſtrious Moors. At preſent only a few ſilver mines are worked, among which, that at Guadalcornal, in the province of Eſtremadura, is the moſt important. It was formerly worked to very great advantage by German adventurers, but it is at preſent greatly on the decline: it is ſaid to have produced, while in a flouriſhing ſtate, to the amount of 60,000 ducats per week. (Dillon.) A few ſilver mines are found in the provinces of Granada, Arragon, and Catalonia. Arragon produces a great deal of iron, moſt of which is exported as it is brought from the mines, and is imported again when manufactured abroad. An Iriſhman, of the name of Dowling, has filled the large warehouſe of blades, at Ildephonſo, with Birmingham articles, the ancient ma-

nufactures of blades, chiefly that at Toledo, are no more in being. (Dillon.) The above-mentioned province produces likewise very large quantities of lead; the clear profits of one of these lead mines at Binares, amounted to 3,000,000 dollars in seven years. Quick-silver is found in the rich mines of Guadal-cornal and Almada. The first who worked them were Germans; the celebrated Fuger, so conspicuous for his wealth in Charles the Fifth's time, got most of his riches from the mine of Almada. In the middle of the present century. the produce of quicksilver amounted to 18,000 cwt. the whole of which is sent over to America for the purpose of almagamating; and the sale of quicksilver to strangers is severely prohibited. (Dillon.)

Spain is indebted to German mineralogists for the discovery of some rich mines of cobalt: the most important of them is that of Gistain, in Arragon. Besides metals, the mineral kingdom affords many valuable articles, among which the quarries of marble, alabaster, and other useful stone, deserve to be mentioned. Spain now first begins to think of facilitating trade, by the establishment of a bank, and by the improvement of the inland

commu-

communication, by means of good roads and canals. A paper-bank was eſtabliſhed in 1782, an Eaſt-India Company incorporated in 1785, and a large canal begun near Zaragoça in 1784.

All the exports of Spain, moſt articles of which no other European country can ſupply, are eſtimated at only 80,000,000 livres, or 3,333,333l. ſterling; a very inconſiderable amount, as will appear from the above ſpecification of the excellent and various articles of production. The moſt important trade of Spain is that which it carries on with its American provinces. The chief imports from theſe extenſive countries conſiſt in gold, ſilver, precious ſtones, pearls, cotton, cacao, cochineal, red wood, ſkins, rice, medicinal herbs and barks, as ſaſafras, Peruvian bark, &c. vanilla, Vicunna wool, ſugar, and tobacco. In 1784, the total amount of the value of Spaniſh goods exported to America was 195,000,000 reales de vellon; foreign commodities, 238,000,000. r. d. v. The imports from America were valued at 900,000,000 reales de vellon, in gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones; and upwards of 300,000,000 in goods. (See Polit. Journ. 1784.) In the

Gazeta de Madrid, 1787, (Feb. 20th) it was ſtated, that the exports to America (the Indies) from the following 12 harbours: Cadiz, Corunna, Malaga, Seville, St. Lucar, Santander, Canarias, Alicante, Barcelona, Tortoſa, Gipon, St. Sebaſtian, amounted, in 1785, to 767,249,787 reales de vellon; the duties paid on theſe exports amounted to 28,543,702 reales de vellon. The imports, both in goods and money, from America and the Weſt-India iſlands, amount in the ſame year to 1,266,071,067 reales de vellon, and the duties to 65,472,195 reales de vellon. The profits of the merchants from the whole American trade was valued at 5,000,000 dollars. (Crome.)

With reſpect to European commerce, the balance is generally againſt Spain, and thoſe loſſes muſt be made up by the produce of its American provinces. All the exports from Spain to Great-Britain amounted, in 1785, to 697,712l. ſterling; the imports from Great-Britain, to 788,064l. ſterling. (See Cuſtom-houſe Account laid before the Houſe of Commons in 1787.) In 1784, the exports were 646,526; the imports 808,698l. ſterling.

GOVERN-

GOVERNMENT.

SPAIN is at preſent an abſolute monarchy. The meeting of the deputies of the towns, whenever a new tax is to be impoſed, is a mere matter of form. Some provinces, however, as Navarra, Biſcay, and Arragon, have preſerved ſome of their ancient immunities. The king's edicts, before they acquire the force of laws, muſt be regiſtered in the court of Caſtile. The crown is hereditary, both in the male and female line. By a law made in 1715, female heirs cannot ſucceed till after the whole male line is extinct.

Public buſineſs is managed by the following departments: The Council of State, or the Cabinet; of the miniſters belonging to it, the ſecretary of ſtate for foreign affairs is conſidered as the firſt. The Supreme Royal Court, or Chamber of Caſtile, occupied with the internal adminiſtration. It is likewiſe the ſupreme court of juſtice in the kingdom, and is divided into four chambers: the Council of War, the Royal Council of the Indies,

Indies, and the Council of Finances. There are 12 tribunals in the different provinces of Spain, called Chancillerias, Conſejos, or Audiencias. In the ſmaller towns the judges of the inferior courts of juſtice are called Alcaides or Bayles; in the larger cities, Corregidores, and their aſſeſſors Regidores. Lawſuits in this country are exceedingly expenſive, and of long duration.

The civil, criminal, and police laws, are partly derived from the ancient Gothic laws, and partly contained in the edicts of the kings. In caſes where theſe laws are deficient, the Roman laws are made uſe of. In eccleſiaſtical matters, the canon or papal law, in its full extent, is adopted as the rule of right.

Fundamental laws of the monarchy are the following: 1. The indiviſibility of the Spaniſh dominions. 2. The right of primogeniture, which put an end to the cuſtom of dividing the kingdom between the ſons of the king. And, 3. The above-mentioned clauſe concerning the ſucceſſion of the female line.

The provinces are governed by viceroys (Virreyes); and all the American dominions of

of Spain are divided into three royal governments, under the viceroys of New Granada, Mexico, and Peru. There are nine ſuperior courts of juſtice, or Audiencias, in America, and one in the Philippine Iſlands.

FINANCES.

THE king's revenue from old Spain amounts to upwards of 5,000,000l. ſterling. According to a ſtatement in Buſching's Mag. which however is not ſufficiently ſupported, the whole of the revenue from Spain, America, and the Philippine Iſlands amounts to 100 millions of piaſters.

The public revenue is divided into the general and provincial revenue. The firſt ariſes, 1. From the cuſtoms and the duties on imported goods from abroad, as well as on thoſe imported from one province into another. 2. From the monopolies of the crown, viz. thoſe of tobacco, ſalt, lead, quickſilver, and gunpowder. 3. From ſtamp duties, contri-

contributions, a tax on landed eſtates, taxes levied on the eſtates of the clergy, from the ſale of papal abſolutions and indulgences, reduced to the price of 40 ſous each, from the poſts, deductions from the ſalaries of public officers, and the mint. 4. The crown revenue from America. 5. The crown revenue from Arragon, Valencia, Catalonia, Mallorca, and Minorca. What is called the provincial revenue ariſes from the 22 provinces, into which the kingdom of Caſtile has been divided; it conſiſts of various tithes, and duties on ſoap, brandy, wine, and other articles. Part of the provincial contributions are aſſigned over to the creditors of the crown, in lieu of intereſt on their capitals. Many branches of the revenue are farmed out to companies. The farm of tobacco alone employs no leſs than 53,000 collectors. Before the year 1770, the public expenditure was nearly equal to the revenue, but has been found ſince to exceed it. In the year 1770, a deficiency of five millions of piaſters was made good, by withholding the ſums deſtined for the extraordinary expence of the colonies.

Spain is burthened with conſiderable public debts; they are at preſent divided into the old and new debts: the former are thoſe contracted by the wars of Charles V. and his ſucceſſors, amounting to 130 millions of piaſters; the new debts have been chiefly incurred by the laſt war with England, and they are ſtated by Necker to amount to 120 millions of French livres, which will be paid off by the year 1800, if no new war ſhould happen.

ARMY.

60—70,000 men (in 1783.)

Beſides 20,000 militia. (See Milit. Biblioth.)

According to others, the regular troops do not actually exceed 50,000 men (Swinburne); and more recent accounts reduce the army to only 20,000 effective men. The army eſtabliſhment, as publiſhed in the year 1776, amounted to 132,730 men on the liſts, viz.

Royal

Royal guards*	9900
Forty-ſix regiments of foot	61,425
Artillery	3355
Engineers	150
Horſe and dragoons	13,200
Militia	29,700
Invalids and militia of the towns	15,000
Total	132,730

This number, if actually raiſed in time of war, would be very moderate, conſidering the great extent of the kingdom. There are ſeveral military ſchools, at Segovia, Barcelona, and Oran, chiefly for artillery. A tactic ſchool is eſtabliſhed at Avila. (Dalrymple.) There are, on the French frontiers, 15 ſtrong fortreſſes, and as many on the frontiers of Portugal.

NAVY.

NAVY.

SHIPS of war of all ſorts 144, in the year 1778. According to the *Neptune of Europe*, Lond. 1782, only 126. In 1784, there were ſaid to be 62 ſhips of the line, from 120——64 guns. (See Encycl. Meth.) The naval troops conſiſted, in 1783, of three companies of guardias marinas, and 12 batalilons of marines, both together 5712 men; a naval artillery corps of 2000 men, a corps of naval engineers, and a corps of pilots. See Kalendario Manual para el anno 1783. Madrit.

All naval affairs are managed by a board divided into three departments, thoſe of Cadiz, Carthagena, and Ferrol, which are the chief harbours of the navy. The whole is under the adminiſtration of a ſecretary of the marine; and each department has its naval academy.

RELI-

RELIGION.

THE Roman Catholic religion is the excluſive religion of the Spaniſh monarchy, and it is in theſe countries of the moſt bigoted, ſuperſtitious, and tyrannical character. All other denominations of Chriſtians, as well as the Jews, are expoſed to all the ſeverities of perſecution; and the leaſt deviation from what is called the orthodox faith, is liable to be puniſhed with loſs of liberty, and even of life. The power of the Court of inquiſition, eſtabliſhed in Spain in 1478, has however been diminiſhed in ſome reſpects by the interference of the civil power. Beſides the Supreme Court of Inquiſition at Madrid, there are 18 inferior tribunals in the ſeveral provinces of the monarchy, which entertain a numerous hoſt of ſpies or familiars, amounting to about 20,000 perſons, who, on the ſlighteſt ſuſpicion of hereſy, denounce perſons of every condition, ſex, and age. The proceedings of this arbitrary court are unlike thoſe of all other courts of juſtice, by deviating from every law of equity and humanity;

manity; they do not even inform the accuſed party of the crime laid to his charge, nor confront him with his accuſer, but endeavour to extort by impriſonment, and by ſtill harſher methods, a confeſſion of heretical opinions.

The public worſhip is loaded with an enormous number of ceremonies, calculated to ſupport the blind zeal of the people for their religion, and the reverence for their ſpiritual tyrants. The whole of the canon law is here in force, and the power of the pope is ſtill very extenſive. It is ſuppoſed, that the clergy of this kingdom amount at preſent to 200,000 perſons, half of which are monks and nuns, diſtributed through 3000 convents. The poſſeſſions of the clergy are very ample; the revenue of the archbiſhop of Toledo amounts to 300,000 Spaniſh ducats. There are in the kingdom of Spain eight archbiſhops and 46 biſhops; in America ſix archbiſhops and 28 biſhops; in the Philippine Iſlands, one archbiſhop and three biſhops. All theſe dignities are in the gift of the king. Fifty-two inferior eccleſiaſtical dignities and offices are in the gift of the pope.

To the Spaniſh clergy there belong three ſpiritual orders of knighthood: the orders of Santiago, Calatrava, and Alcantara, poſſeſſed of very large eſtates. The revenues of the order of Santiago amount to upwards of two millions of reales de vellon; thoſe of the order of Calatrava, to upwards of one million; the revenues of the order of Alcantara and of Monteſa, a ſpiritual order in the kingdom of Arragon, amount together to about one million reales de vellon. The knights of Malta have eſtates in Spain, valued at nearly three millions and a half reales de vellon annual income.

GENERAL REMARKS.

WHOEVER conſiders the climate, the fertility, and the immenſe extent of the dominions belonging to the crown of Spain, muſt be grieved to find the accumulated natural treaſures of ſo great a part of the globe turn out to ſo little advantage to the human ſpecies. A compariſon of this

kingdom

kingdom with France or England, ſhews its inferiority in a very ſtriking light. It ſeems, that the want of vigour and happineſs of the Spaniſh monarchy is to be attributed chiefly to three cauſes: 1. To the depopulation of Old Spain, occaſioned by the injudicious and cruel expulſion of the induſtrious Moors. 2. To the religious oppreſſion ſtill prevailing in Spain, and diſcouraging foreigners from ſettling in that kingdom. 3. To the diſcovery of ſo very rich a country as America, and to the ſudden influx of too much gold and ſilver from thence. It appears from ſeveral calculations, that ſome thouſand millions of ducats have been brought over to Spain ſince the diſcovery of America. Theſe riches being acquired without any other trouble but that of plundering and oppreſſing the natives, proved extremely prejudicial to the mother-country, by inducing great numbers of inhabitants to emigrate from Old Spain, in order to exchange labour and induſtry for rapine; and by rendering the ancient ſources of wealth, agriculture and manufactures, contemptible, when compared to the riches to be acquired in America. In conſequence of this revolution, the uſeful arts, rendered

perhaps more difficult in this kingdom by the influence of the climate, ſunk into neglect and inſignificancy, from which they have not yet emerged. It is to be hoped however, that this fatal conſequence of too rapid an influx of money, eſpecially if the latter ſhould be not permanent in its nature, will in future be guarded againſt by other commercial nations, to whom the preſent ſtate of Spain may ſerve as a uſeful warning.

While the Moors were maſters of Spain, agriculture and the uſeful arts were in a very flouriſhing ſtate, and ſciences were arrived to a degree of luſtre the more conſpicuous by being contraſted with the ignorance ſpread over the reſt of Europe. The preſent ſtate of ſciences in Spain is far from being flouriſhing. There are, it is true, near 30 univerſities in the Spaniſh dominions; among which, thoſe of Madrid, Salamanca, Sevilla, Valladolid, Zaragoça, and Toledo, are the moſt celebrated; but Ariſtotelic and ſcholaſtic philoſophy, ſubſervient to the abſurd doctrines of a ſuperſtitious church, is ſtill prevailing in theſe ſeminaries, with very little change ever ſince the reſtoration of ancient learning. While ſciences are excluſively taught by monks and prieſts, while the productions of genius are ſubject

to

to the rigorous cenſure of an inquiſition, which is by its nature an enemy to free diſcuſſion and to the prevalence of reaſon, it is not to be expected that philoſophy will make any progreſs under the terrors of priſons and *autos da fé*. Yet poetry and the arts have made a conſiderable figure in Spain. There are ſeveral ſocieties at Madrid, Valencia, Barcelona, Valladolid, intended for the improvement of the Caſtilian language, the ſtudy of the canon law, and the liturgy; of hiſtory, the Latin language, medicine, the arts of deſign and geography. Great hopes are entertained of the progreſs of ſcience and philoſophy in a future reign, from the attachment of the preſent prince of Aſturia to natural hiſtory and the political ſciences.

TABLE XV.

PORTUGAL.

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3. *Brieſe über Portugal.* Letters on Portugal, by Mr. Sprengel. 1782, 8vo.
4. *Verſuch über Europens Producte. 2ter Theil.* Second Eſſay on the Productions of Europe, (contains only thoſe of Portugal and Spain) by Mr. Crome.
5. Memoires de Portugal, par M. d'Oliveira. Amſterd. 1741.
6. *Abriſs des Portugicſiſchen Handels.* Survey of the Commerce of Portugal, by Mr. Schedel, in the Leipzick Magazine for Commerce, 1783.
7. Travels, by Dalrymple, Twiſs, Baretti, &c.

TABLE XV.

EXTENT and DIVISIONS.	Areas in ſquare miles.	Population.	Population for each ſingle ſquare mile.	CHIEF TOWNS.
37——42° Latitude				
The whole kingdom, with the Atlantic Iſlands	32,000 ——	2,360,000 2,500,000	74	
Portugal, without the Iſlands — —	27,376 ——	2,300,000 2,200,000 B. 2,000,000 1,800,000	80 65	19 Towns. 527 Villages. 3343 Pariſhes.
1. The Province of Eſtremadura — —	5,440 ——	above 350,000 in the year 1732.	64	Names. Num. Inh Liſbon — 120,000 180,000 according to others. Lavua —— 3,000 Setuval, or St. Hubes } 10,500
2. Beira — — —	7,200 ——	550,856	76	Coimbra — 12, 00 Aveiro — 4,400
3. Province Entre Minno e Duero — —	1,840 ——	430,300 the moſt populous province.	234	Oporto — 40,000 Braga — 12,000
4. Traz los Mentes — — —	2,400 ——	180,800	74	Braganza — 2,700 Miranda

TABLE XV. continued.

EXTENT and DIVISIONS.	Areas in ſquare miles.	Population.	Population to each ſingle ſquare mile.	CHIEF TOWNS
5. Alentejo	7,800	262,223	30	Evora — 10,000 Villa Vicioſa — 3,700 Elvas Eſtremoz — 6,500 La Lippe
6. The kingdom of Algarvia	1,600	63,700	40	Lagos — 2,800 Tavira — 4,700 Faru
Iſlands in the Atlantic Ocean, viz.	4,608	130,000	28	
Iſle Porto Santo		1,200		Porto Santo — 600
Madeira		65,000		Funchal
The Azores				
St. Miguel		52,900		Ponta Delgada
Terceira				Angru
Fayal				Horto
Pico				Villa das Lagens
Flores				St. Cruz
Corvo				

Poſſeſ-

POSSESSIONS OF THE CROWN OF PORTUGAL IN OTHER PARTS OF THE GLOBE.

1. IN *Aſia*. Some ſettlements along the weſtern coaſt of the Indian peninſula within the Ganges, as Diu, Chaoul, Goa, of which the latter is the moſt important, and the ſeat of the governor of the Portugueſe poſſeſſions in the Eaſt-Indies. Macao, a ſmall town on the coaſt of China.

2. In *Africa*. The iſlands called Azores, the iſlands Madeira and Porto Santo; the iſlands of Cape Verde; ſeveral forts along the Gambia, and on the coaſt of Guinea; the iſlands of St. Thomas and do Principe; ſome ſettlements in Congo, Loango, and Angola; (the Portugueſe are almoſt the only nation acquainted with theſe Provinces, with which they carry on a very lucrative trade); ſeveral ſettlements on the coaſt of Zanguebar and Sofala, and farther in the country. Moſambique is the moſt important of theſe places.

3. In *America*. The large province of Braſil, divided into 14 capitanias or governments;

ments; and ſmall poſſeſſions on the coaſt of Guiana, and in Paraguay. The colony of San Sagramento, on the river de la Plata, was taken by the Spaniards in 1777.

WEALTH AND COMMERCE.

PORTUGAL, ſituated in the ſame genial climate with Spain, abounds like the latter in excellent natural productions; it is well watered; a great part of it bounded by the ocean, and it is poſſeſſed of very rich provinces beyond the ſeas. It is however not proportionably powerful; its inhabitants are indigent, and the balance of trade is againſt it. It is even obliged to import the neceſſaries of life, chiefly corn, from other countries. In point of population, it has rather the advantage of Spain.

Portugal produces wine, wool, oil, ſilk, honey, aniſeed, ſumac; all the finer ſorts of fruit enumerated in the preceding table of Spain; ſome corn, flax, cork. Theſe articles of produce might, with a little induſtry, be raiſed

raiſed in great abundance. There are in this kingdom ſeveral evident traces of very rich mines; they continue however to be unregarded. Portugal has very little ſilver in circulation; it is not unuſual to find it difficult to make up a ſum of twenty pounds in ſilver. This ſcarcity was in a great meaſure owing to an injudicious permiſſion of exporting coined ſilver.

The exports of Portugal are not inconſiderable; but they are greatly exceeded by the imports. The ſoil produces no more corn annually than what is barely ſufficient for three months conſumption; corn therefore is the moſt conſiderable article of importation from abroad. As no manufactures of any importance are in a thriving ſtate, the Portugueſe are ſupplied by the induſtry of other nations, chiefly the Engliſh, with almoſt every article of dreſs, and with moſt other articles of uſe and convenience. It ſeems, that the efforts of government to encourage induſtry have hitherto been ineffectual. The late miniſter of ſtate, M. de Pombal, found it impracticable to raiſe a glaſs manufacture into conſequence, notwithſtanding he laid out 80,000 cruſades,

or

or 54,000 crowns upon this ſcheme, and doubled the duties of foreign glaſs, in order to encourage the manufacture. (See Taube.) A linen manufacture eſtabliſhed at Oporto cannot eaſily be expected to thrive, while the materials uſed in it muſt be imported from the Baltic.

To the above-mentioned diſadvantages we muſt add the want of fiſheries, which obliges this country to buy by far the greateſt part of the fiſh it conſumes from other nations. Its commerce is almoſt entirely in the hands of ſtrangers. It has impoſed very heavy duties upon the neceſſaries of life, a meaſure which is very unfavourable to induſtry. In the year 1784, the Portugueſe government, in order to encourage the freighting trade, lowered the duties on all goods imported and exported in Portugueſe bottoms by 10 per cent. which it is hoped will be of great uſe to commerce.

In 1785, the goods imported from Great-Britain and Ireland into Portugal, conſiſting of woollens, corn, fiſh, wood, and hardware, amounted to upwards of 960,000l. ſterling. The Engliſh took in return of the produce of Portugal and Braſil to the amount of

of 728,000l. ſterling. (See the State of Trade between the Britiſh dominions and Portugal, from the Accounts of the Britiſh Factory, laid before the Houſe of Commons, 1787.) To ſupport a trade which is, upon the whole, much againſt Portugal, this kingdom has the reſource of ready money drawn from Braſil: if theſe ſupplies ſhould ever fail, it would be ſoon entirely ruined, if it had nothing to rely upon but its preſent induſtry. Only 15 millions of livres in ready money are ſuppoſed to circulate in a country which draws annually upwards of 1,500,000l. ſterling, or 36 millions of livres, from the mines of Braſil. Since the diſcovery of theſe mines, that is, within the laſt ſixty years, Portugal has brought from Braſil about 2400 millions of livres, or 100,000,000l. ſterling. (See Dict. Encyclop.) Beſides theſe large ſums of money, Portugal imports from Braſil large quantities of cacao, ſugar, rice, train-oil, whalebone, coffee, and medicinal drugs.

No commercial companies have hitherto been eſtabliſhed. The principal trading places are, the towns of Liſbon, Oporto, and Setuval. In former times, when the Portugueſe had an extenſive commerce and ſettlements

tlements in the Eaſt-Indies; their trade to China was important, but it has lately greatly decreaſed.

GOVERNMENT.

TOWARDS the latter end of the laſt century, the diets or meetings of the ſtates were diſcontinued, and the council of the three eſtates (*Junta dos tres eſtados*) viz. the clergy, the nobility, and the cities, now ſubſtituted in lieu of thoſe aſſemblies, is compoſed only of ſuch members as are nominated by the king himſelf. Since that time, the government of the kingdom of Portugal is abſolutely monarchical; yet the political influence of the two firſt eſtates is ſtill now and then perceived.

The fundamental laws of Portugal are: 1. The ſtatutes of Alphonſus, publiſhed at Lamego in 1143, conſiſting of 22 regulations relative to the royal ſucceſſion, to the rights of juriſdiction, the independance of the kingdom, and the rights of the nobility. 2. The manifeſto of the ſtates, publiſhed in 1641,

1641, immediately after the revolution relating to the order of ſucceſſion.

The civil laws of Portugal are contained in the edicts of the kings; and where theſe are deficient, the Roman laws are conſulted. In eccleſiaſtical matters, the canon law in its full extent is adopted, and the power and authority of the pope is very great in this kingdom.

The chief departments of government are the following: the Council of State, the Council of War, the Aulic Council (*Diſembargo do Paço*) or Supreme Court of Juſtice, the Council of Finances, and the Royal Board of Cenſure (*Regia Meſa cenſoria.*)

In the inferior courts of juſtice the judges are nominated by the king, or by the poſſeſſors of the large eſtates; in the ſuperior courts, by the king excluſively. There are two courts of appeal at Liſbon and Oporto; from which appeal may be made in the laſt inſtance to the Aulic Council. The magiſtrates of the towns have likewiſe an inferior juriſdiction in matters of leſs importance. The proceedings in the courts of juſtice are ſlow and arbitrary, and the number of lawyers and law-officers is exceedingly great.

FINANCES.

Revenue of the Crown 1,800,000l. ſterling.

It ariſes from the cuſtoms and duties, from ſeveral internal taxes; from the mines of Braſil, of the produce of which one-fifth belongs to the king, eſtimated at 350,000l. ſterling; from other duties on the produce of Braſil; from a tax on the rent of lands, which is 10 per cent. of the yearly income; from duties on imported goods, at 16 per cent. and duties of 5 per cent. on exported goods.

The public debts were eſtimated in 1774 at only 28 millions of cruſades.

ARMY.

25,000 Men.

According to the eſtabliſhment of the year 1772, the army ought to conſiſt of 35,998 men, viz. 38 regiments of foot, at 811 men each; and of 12 regiments of cavalry, of

400

400 men each. The late Count of Lippe Büickeburg has made conſiderable improvements in the military diſcipline of Portugal.

A country militia formed of peaſants.

NAVY.

24 Ships, viz.
13 Ships of the line.
11 Frigates.

Five ſhips of the line are ſtationed on the coaſt of Braſil. There are two regiments of marines and a corps of naval artillery.

RELIGION.

THE ſtate of religion in Portugal exactly reſembles that of Spain; the intolerant bigotry of the eſtabliſhed Roman Catholic religion is no leſs prejudicial to the Portugueſe, than to the Spaniſh nation. There are ſeveral tribunals of Inquiſition, viz. at Liſbon, Coimbra, Evora, and at Goa

in the Eaſt-Indies. A great number of Jews are however in the country, who conform outwardly with the eſtabliſhed religion: it is ſaid that many of them are even among the clergy.

The Portugueſe clergy conſiſts of one Patriarch, a dignity granted to the church of Portugal in the year 1716, of three archbiſhops and 15 biſhops; the number of eccleſiaſtical perſons upon the whole amounts to 200,000: 30,000 of which are monks and nuns: according to others there are 60,000 monks and nuns, and 745 convents. The proportion of the number of the clerical perſons to that of the laymen, is as 1 to 11. There are three ſpiritual orders of knighthood in Portugal, that of Avis, of Santiago, and of Chriſt: the laſt is by far the moſt opulent.

TABLE

TABLE XVI.

TURKEY.

AUTHORITIES.

1. *BESCHREIBUNG des Türkiſchen Reichs.* Deſcription of the Turkiſh Empire, by Mr. Ludecke. Leipz. 1778. (German.)
2. *D'Anville Beſchr. des Türkiſchen Reichs.* D'Anville's Deſcription of the Turkiſh Empire, with additions, by Hugo. 1773. (German.)
3. *Anmerkungen über die Relig. Regierungsform der Türken.* Porter's Obſerv. on the Religion and Government of the Turks.
4. *Nachrichten von der Oſmaniſchen Monarchie.* Account of the Ottoman Empire, by Buſinello, in Le Bret's Magaz. vol. I.
5. Habeſci's preſent State of the Ottoman Empire in 1784. A continuation of the former.

6. Memoires du Baron de Tott ſur les Turcs & les Tatares, 1785, and tranſlated into Engliſh.

7. *Beſchreib. des Oſman. Reichs.* Deſcript. of the Ottoman Empire, by Mr. Stoever. 1784.

8. Etat preſent des Forces Turques ſur terre. 1774. In Buſching's Magazine.

9. Travels into Turkey, by Lady W. Montague, Pococke, Kleeman, Guys, Niebuhr, Otter, Savary, Norden, &c.

TABLE

TABLE XVI.

	Square miles.	Population.	Population for each ſingle ſqu. mile.	TOWNS.
All Turkey, viz. in Europe, Aſia, and Africa	800,000	49,000,000 others, 32,000,000 probably: 36,000,000 in Aſia & 5,000,000 in Africa According to others, only 18,000,000 for all the dominions Arabia excepted.	61	
EXTENT and DIVISIONS. 34°——49° Latitude In EUROPE — — —	182,562	8,000,000 7,000,000	38	
A. Subject Provinces 1. Government of Rumelia, formerly Romania Thracia — — —	26,880			Conſtantinople 1,000,000 among them are, 200,000 Greeks 40,000 Armenians 60,000 Jews
2. Bulgaria — — —	28,040			Adrianople — 80,000 Sophia — 70,000 Siliſtria — 60,000

TABLE XVI. Continued.

EXTENT and DIVISIONS.	Square miles.	Population.	Population for each ſingle ſqu. mile.	TOWNS.
3. Makdona, formerly Macedonia 4. Albania, formerly Epirus and Illyria 5. Jania, formerly Theſſalia 6. Livadia, formerly Hellas	41,280			Salonichi (Theſſalonica) 40,000 Scutari Durazzo Lariſſa Livadia Athinia (Athens) — 6,000
7. Mora Vilaieti, formerly Morea — —	9,856			Modan (Methone) Corinth, only a village Miſſitra (Sparta)
8. Servia — — —	16,000			Belgrad
9. Part of Croatia — — —	3,200			Wiliz
10. Part of Dalmatia — — —	3,776			Scardania
11. Boſnia — — — —	7,360			Boſnia contains 23 towns and 7 mining places. Boſna Sarai
12. Candia, formerly Creta — —	5,200			Candia
B. TRIBUTARY COUNTRIES.				
1. Beſſarabia				Akkierman, or Bialogrod Oczakow
2. Walachia — — — —	19,000	500,000 Sulzer.	25	Buckaretſch — 60,000 Tergaviſto
3. Moldavia, without the Buckowina — Independent, only under the protection of the Porte.	2,800	250,000	12	Jaſſy — — 2,000 Beuder Gallach

WEALTH AND COMMERCE.

THE Turkiſh dominions, including, beſides the above ſpecified poſſeſſions in Europe, the provinces of Aſia Minor, Georgia, Mingrelia, Armenia, Bagdad, Aleppo, Damaſcus, Palæſtina, part of Arabia and Egypt, belong to thoſe parts of the world, which enjoy the moſt delightful climate, and the happieſt ſituation for commerce and the acquiſition of opulence. Nature has poured out her gifts on theſe provinces with profuſion. But the tyrannical government now prevailing in this large part of the world being hoſtile to induſtry and population, renders this immenſe empire wretched and indigent.

Beſides the fineſt natural productions which are found in Spain and Italy, Turkey in Europe abounds in horſes, and in various ſorts of excellent peltry, ſupplied by the wild beaſts in the mountainous and woody parts of the provinces. It produces alſo a great deal of cotton, maſtix, manna, goats hair, which reſembles ſilk in ſoftneſs, eſpecially the ſort called camel-hair.

The province of Walachia in particular, produces, in good years, 5,000,000 eymers of wine, the eymer weighing 22 ½ lb. Three ſmall iſlands in the Archipelago, Methalika, Patrazzo, and Roſtizza, yield about 800,000lb. of currants. Honey and wax is produced in great abundance in Moldavia; the tenth part of the profits from the hives yields a revenue of 200,000 dollars to the Hoſpodar, or prince of Moldavia. (Sulzer). Livadia, Macedonia, and Candia, produce annually upwards of 3,000,000 lb. of honey, of which about one-fourth is exported. (Sprengel). Moſt provinces raiſe, or might raiſe, excellent ſilk, in conſiderable quantities. That which is raiſed in the province of Macedonia is eſtimated to amount to 100,000 lb. and at Theſſalonica, or Salonichi, to the amount of 500,000 piaſters, is annually ſold. Cotton is likewiſe found chiefly in Macedonia, which province exports 120,000 balls, ſold at 80 piaſters each. The French purchaſe annually 12,000 balls at Salonichi, the Engliſh for 400,000 piaſters, the Italians for 240,000, and the Germans for 1,700,000 piaſters. (Sprengel). Tobacco is exported from the

ſame

ſame place to Italy, to the amount of 290,000 piaſters.

The provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia poſſeſs immenſe maſſes of ſalt-rock, connected with the great rock ſtrata of Gallicia and Tranſylvania; and the prince of Wallachia gains upwards of 500,000 florins annually by the ſalt-works at Riamick. (Sulzer). Moldavia abounds in buffalos and oxen, of which 40,000 head are ſold to the neighbouring provinces: nearly as many horſes are annually ſold in this province. (Boſcowich). In the ſame fertile diſtricts, great numbers of ſheep are bred, reckoned to amount to 4,000,000. Beſides the profits ariſing from the wool, the ſkins of theſe ſheep, and ſkins of goats, are uſed in making Saffian and Morocco leather. Boſnia and Servia ſell about 40,000 hogs annually to Hungary. The wines of Greece, and its olive oil, are very celebrated for their excellence.

In the extenſive dominions of Turkey, which are bordered by great ridges of mountains, the mineral kingdom might yield extraordinary riches; but the ſcience of mining is as much neglected by the Turks as all other ſciences. They have, however, begun

to

to ſearch for copper and iron in Wallachia; and the gold duſt, waſhed down by the rivers of that province, gives ſufficient indication of what may be expected to be found in its mountains. The ſeveral ſorts of marble found in Greece have been highly eſteemed in ancient and modern times. Sulphur, allum, ſaltpetre, aſphaltes, and other valuable minerals, are found in plenty.

If we conſider the natural riches of the Aſiatic provinces and of Egypt, we ceaſe to wonder how the Turks, notwithſtanding their averſion to induſtry and manufactures, are no loſers by their trade, of which the balance is rather in their favour. From Turkey the following goods are exported: cotton, ſilk, wool, camel yarn, leather, coffee, wine, rice, fruits, tobacco, honey, wax, cattle, marble, &c. The imports conſiſt in woollens, corn, indigo, ſugar, cochenille, ſpices, glaſs, hardware, and Eaſt-India goods. The Turks are no great loſers by their trade with France; they loſe not much by their trade with the Dutch; and they ſeem to be gainers by that with England. In 1785, the goods exported from Turkey to England amounted to 146,906l. ſterl. the goods imported from

England

England into Turkey to only 82,449l. ſterl. (See the account of the value of all goods exported from and imported into Great-Britain, laid before the Houſe of Commons in 1787). They are likewiſe gainers by their trade to Germany and Hungary: the imports from the latter kingdom into Turkey amounted, in 1778, to only 241,773 florins, whereas the Turkiſh goods ſold to Hungary amounted to 1,328,337 florins. (Sulzer). From theſe benefits derived from trade, even with the preſent inconſiderable ſhipping employed in it, and notwithſtanding the want of manufactures, we may infer how great the profits of commerce might be rendered, if induſtry ſhould ever be ſo far encouraged as to bear a juſt proportion to the natural wealth of the country.

The principal trading towns in Turkey are the cities of Conſtantinople, Smyrna, Aleppo, Damaſcus, Alexandria, and Salonichi.

GOVERN-

GOVERNMENT.

THE government of the Turkiſh empire is deſpotical; the life and property of the ſubject depend on the will of the Sultan, who is the only free man in his dominions, and who exacts a blind obedience to his will as a civil and religious duty. Yet the emperor is reſtrained, in ſome meaſure, by the ſame religious ſyſtem on which his arbitrary power is founded, and ſtill more by the intrigues of the principal officers of his court or ſeraglio, who are poſſeſſed of the actual power of which the Sultan enjoys only the appearance. The great influence of the army, and, now and then, a ſenſe of oppreſſion which rouſes the people to rebellion, are likewiſe objects of terror, and have often proved fatal to theſe arbitrary monarchs. The Turkiſh throne is hereditary in the family of Oſman: after the extinction of the lineal deſcendants of this prince, of whom there are few remaining, the right of ſucceſſion devolves on the family of Gherai, Chan of the Crimea.

The

The ſupreme council of ſtate is called the divan. The regular or ordinary divan is compoſed of the high officers of ſtate; and, on particular emergencies, an extraordinary divan is held, which conſiſts, beſides theſe officers, of other perſons of experience and knowledge of the law, called in by the miniſters to aſſiſt in their deliberations. At both meetings the Grand Sultan is uſually preſent, but only in an adjoining apartment, where he may hear the advice of his miniſters: the preſident of the divan is the grand viſier as firſt miniſter, whoſe power in the ſtate is exceedingly great, but whoſe place is very precarious, and generally fatal to the poſſeſſor. The provinces of the empire are ruled by governors, called Baſhaws, who exerciſe nearly the ſame arbitrary power over the ſubject provinces which the Sultan has over the whole empire. The connection of the diſtant provinces with the ſeat of the empire is very weak, and often ſhaken by rebellions, and the quarrels of the Baſhaws. All public offices are bought, and of courſe generally filled with the worſt and moſt rapacious perſons. The Hoſpodars, or princes of Wallachia and Moldavia, pay very large

ſums

ſums to the Grand Sultan for their dignities, and they indemnify themſelves by extortions from their ſubjects.

The Turkiſh laws are contained in the Coran, in the code of laws collected by Soliman II. and, in dubious caſes, the deciſions of the Mufti, the chief of the Mahommedan church, have the authority of laws. Each town has its court of juſtice, conſiſting of the ſuperior judge, or *cadi*, who is called *molla* in the larger towns, under whom there is an inferior judge and a clerk. In the provinces, the Baſhaws are ſupreme judges. From the deciſions of the magiſtrates of the towns, appeal may be made to the *Cadi Leſchkires*, or ſuperior judges of the army, in Rumilia and Anadoli. From theſe, appeal lies in the laſt inſtance to a divan, held expreſsly, for that purpoſe, by the Grand Viſier, at his own houſe.

The Greeks, ſubject to the Grand Sultan, have their own courts of juſtice.

FINANCES.

PUBLIC revenue, 30,000,000 dollars, or 89,955 purſes, at 500 piaſtres each. (Schloezer.)

It is very difficult to ſtate the revenue of the Turkiſh emperor with any degree of accuracy, as a very conſiderable part of it is irregularly levied on the ſubject, and liable to great variations. The *miri*, or public treaſury, is reckoned to receive annually about 20,000,000 dollars. (Buſinello). But there are, beſides the miri, two other treaſuries, the private chatoulle of the emperor, called *chaſna*, and the treaſury of the Moſques. The ordinary revenue paid annually into the chaſna, amounts to 600,000 dollars; but a much larger ſum ariſes from confiſcated eſtates and property, from the exchange and the ſale of public offices, from ſeizures of the fortunes of rich private perſons, to whom the emperor declares himſelf heir, and from various other extortions.

In

In 1776, the revenue was collected in the following manner:

1. Amount of the *Charatſch*, or capitation of ſuch ſubjects in Europe who are not muſſulmen, and who are not under the immediate protection of foreign ambaſſadors —	Florins	11,313,000
2. Charatſch of Aſia		8,160,000
3. ——— of Cyprus, Candia, and the Archipel.		1,395,000
4. ——— of Egypt		787,000
5. Other revenues from Aſia and Egypt —		850,000
6. Contributions of the tributary nations of Aſia		2,362,500
7. Tribute of the Hoſpodars of Wallachia and Moldavia		1,400,000
8. Domaine of the emperor, including the revenues from fiſheries —		2,390,000
9. Cuſtoms at Conſtantinople, and duty on tobacco		2,820,000
10. Farm of the ſalt and mines		12,500,000
11. Revenue from Mecca and Medina ——		1,640,000
12. Extraordinary revenue from inheritance and confiſcation		8,170,000
Upwards of —		53,000,000

In the ſame year the public expenditure was ſaid to amount to only 44,495,000 florins. This ſtatement is taken from the ſtatiſtical tables, publiſhed at Vienna, the author of which, from the vicinity of that capital to Turkey, was likely to be beſt acquainted with the preſent ſtate of the latter. The department of the treaſury, or miri, is divided into twelve burcaux: the firſt miniſter of finances is called Defterdar. In every province the officers and collectors of the revenue are very numerous and oppreſſive.

ARMY.

IT is uſually eſtimated at 300,000 men; nor is it at all difficult to raiſe ſo large a number of men in time of war, if all thoſe undiſciplined crouds are taken into the account, which flock together from all parts to the ſtandard of Mahomed. But even a regular well diſciplined army of 300,000 men, would not be too large for an empire of ſuch extent, and which contains ſuch great numbers of inhabitants. About one half of the above

number may be conſidered as of real uſe; and this was the actual force of the empire in the beginning of the late Ruſſian war. There were, at that time, the following forces.

INFANTRY.

Janiſſaries	—	27,000 men
Sſerhadkuby, or frontier troops		10,000
Field artillery corps	—	6,000
Garriſon artillery	——	4,000
		47,000

CAVALRY.

Spahis	—	15,000
Timariots	—	75,000
Sſerhadkuby	—	10,000
		100,000

Together, 147,000. (*Buſching*'s Wöch. Nachr. *Stoever*.)

The garriſons of Conſtantinople and other fortreſſes, amount to 120,000 men more. The artillery of the Turkiſh army is very numerous; and the able officers uſually ſent from France, do every thing in their power to make it uſeful. But even with their aſ-

ſiſtance,

ſiſtance, the Turks are much inferior in military ſtrength to other European powers. (See Baron de Tott.)

NAVY.

About 60 ſhips of war.

In the year 1786, the Turks had actually 30 ſhips of the line, of 800 men each, and 40 galleys, 140 men each; and this number was intended to be encreaſed.

In any extraordinary exigency the Turks are able to fit out

40 ſhips of the line of		800 men each
40 gallies	—	140
20 caravellas		300
100 galliots	—	60

Total 200 ſhips of war, and 50,000 ſea troops, or leventi. The ſtates under the protection of the Porte, viz. Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, are obliged to furniſh ten ſhips of the line.

RELIGION.

THE eſtabliſhed religion in this empire is the Mahomedan, of the ſect of the Sunnites: the heretical ſect of the Shaites is, however, tolerated: all other religions are likewiſe included in this ſyſtem of toleration, on paying a certain capitation. Among the Chriſtians reſiding in Turkey, thoſe of the orthodox Greek religion are the moſt numerous, and they enjoy ſeveral privileges; they can, for inſtance, be advanced to dignities and poſts of truſt and profit; as to the princely dignity of Moldavia and Wallachia, to the place of body phyſicians and interpreters of the imperial court. The Greeks are, in religious matters, ſubject to the patriarch of Conſtantinople, who is conſidered as the chief of the Greek church and nation, and whoſe authority and juriſdiction is extenſive. Other branches of the Greek church are the Armenians, Neſtorians, Maronites, Copteſ, and others.

The Turkiſh clergy is numerous: this body is compoſed of all the learned in that

empire; and they are likewiſe the only teachers of the law, who muſt be conſulted in all important caſes. In their capacity of lawyers, or interpreters of the Coran, which, in moſt caſes, is the code of laws, the clergy are called *ylana*, or the inſtructed in the law. The Grand Sultan himſelf as caliph, or ſucceſſor to the prophet Mahomed, is their head; but their actual chief is the Mufti, an officer of great authority and political influence. The Sultan has the power of depoſing the Mufti, but he cannot take his property from him, which is conſidered as ſacred. The ſucceſſors or deſcendants of Mahomed, who are called emirs, or ſheriffs, enjoy the ſame privilege. Thoſe perſons or prieſts, who are employed in the rites of the public worſhip, are called Imans; and the Mahomedan temples are known by the name of Moſques. There are, among the Turks, eight religious orders; their Monks are called Derviſes, and lead, in general, a very auſtere life. The Moſques are very richly endowed, and the eſtates which they have acquired are become ſacred, and cannot be taken away even by the moſt arbitrary deſpots. Many opulent perſons aſſign their eſtates over to the Moſques,

Moſques, even in their life time, and pay them a ſmall annual rent, which enſures them the poſſeſſion during life; after their death, the whole is the property of the church.

Jews are very numerous in Turkey: they are ſubject to a chief of their own nation, called Cochan Paſcha, whoſe power over them is even greater than that which the Patriarch exerciſes over the Greek Chriſtians. Gypſies are found in all provinces. Upon the whole, the number of Mahomedans is greater than that of the ſubjects of other religious denominations.

FINIS.

ERRATA.

Preface, Page vii. line 1, for *on*, read *in*.
Survey, Page 13, line 11, for ר׳ט, read ר׳ט.
——— 19, — 3, for *has*, read *have*.
——— 27, — 2, for 2500, read 25009.
——— 35, — 20, for *Aſtmichen*, read *Archangel*.
——— 83, — 10, add, *governed by its own duke, the revenues of whom amount to about* 80,000 *l. ſterling*.
——— 137, — 2, add, *the whole March Brandenburg contains* 123 *towns*.
——— 137, — 3, *Berlin*, 6500 *houſes*, add 138,000 *inhabitants*.
——— 164, Table ix. line 5, add 37 *towns*, 400 *villages*.—Place the towns in the ſame table of the province of Utrecht againſt Zeeland, and vice verſa.—The number of the towns of the province of Utrecht is only 5, and 65 villages; Zeeland contains 11 towns; Overyſſel 16 towns.
——— 274, — 6 and 7, dele *called Sorbonne*, a the Sorbonne is not an univerſity.
——— 290, — 13, for *on*, read *in*.
——— 295, — 1, for *the*, read *a*.